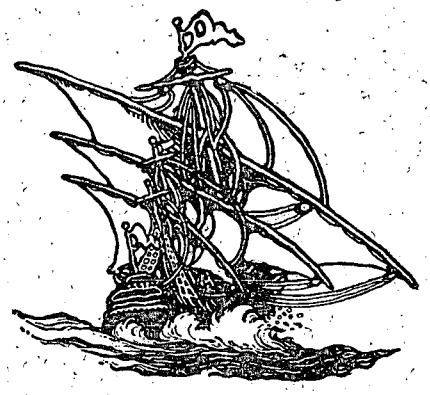
THE SURVEY

GRAPHIC NUMBER



Going to School

Six Children in Search of an Educator — *Ira S. Wile*
The German Revolution at School — *Boris Stern*
The Negro Builds for Himself — *Joseph K. Hart*
Students Who Pay Back — *W. E. Harmon*
For a Profession-in-the-Making — *Virginia P. Robinson*
School in a Textile Mill — *Work Photographs by Hine*

A YEAR OF THE EIGHT-HOUR DAY IN STEEL
S. Adele Shaw

NEXT STEPS FOR THE COUNTRY CHURCH
Edmund de S. Brunner

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SEPTEMBER 1, 1924

$5.00 a Year

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GENERAL ELECTRIC

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THE SURVEY

Graphic Number

Vol. LII, No. 11 September 1, 1924

CONTENTS

THE GERMAN REVOLUTION GOES TO SCHOOL . . . . . *Boris Stern* 559

THE NEGRO BUILDS FOR HIMSELF . . . . . *Joseph K. Hart* 563

NOW THAT JERRY HAS TIME TO LIVE . . . . . *S. Adele Shaw* 568

GOING TO SCHOOL IN A TEXTILE MILL . . . . . *Lewis W. Hine* 571

SIX CHILDREN IN SEARCH OF AN EDUCATOR . . . . . *Ira S. Wile* 576

STUDENTS WHO PAY BACK . *W. E. Harmon* 581

NEXT STEPS FOR THE COUNTRY CHURCH . . . . . *Edmund de S. Brunner* 583

EDITORIALS 585

NEIGHBORS 587

EDUCATION FOR A PROFESSION-IN-THE-MAKING . . . . . *Virginia P. Robinson* 589

The Gist of It

THE study of the German Revolution at School which Boris Stern contributes to this Going to School number (p. 559) is drawn from research material which he gathered in ten months in Germany and on which he has based a forthcoming book, Constitutional Government in Industry. With this book in hand as a thesis, Mr. Stern hopes soon to receive his Ph. D. from Columbia —a somewhat stirring finale for a little more than ten years' adventuring in this country. Coming from Russia in 1913, he struggled with the English language in the St. Louis schools for a year and a half, then spent four years at Harvard, then a year as regimental interpreter with the A. E. F., then two years at Columbia before going abroad to make this study.

DR. HART offers his story of the Rosenwald schools, as "an episode in an epic of education." (p. 563) *in absentia*. During the summer he has been not only observing but sharing in the educational tasks of the South—chiefly at the University of Texas.

THE time has not yet come to write the obituary of the twelve-hour day in steel, in spite of the death blow which that miserable institution suffered in Judge Gary's pronouncement just over a year ago. When S. Adele Shaw visited steel centers in April for the Cabot Fund she found marked and hopeful progress toward the new regime of the eight-hour day, but she found also survivals and imperfect adjustments which, along with the evidences of betterment, she presents on p. 568.

SIX Children in Search of an Educator (with suitable apologies to Pirandello) make up the final group of youngsters whose behaviour difficulties Dr. Wile has illuminated for Survey Graphic readers. In Children and this Clumsy World (Survey Graphic, February, 1924), the children needed primarily adjustment of their social relations. These Volcanic Years (June, 1924) dealt with emotional stresses. This group needed help in what we usually call mental difficulties. All these and many more children known to Dr. Wile through his private practice and his Health Class at Mt. Sinai Hospital are included in his book, shortly to be published, as Some Children I Have Known.

WILLIAM E. HARMON built his success as an operator in suburban and city real estate on a certain freshness of attack: he originated, for example, a new method of transferring property to purchasers who needed time for payment. He runs the Harmon Foundation in much the same way, and tests its operation by business principles (p. 581).

IT is somewhat new for the church to be the object of scientific observation: the country church in particular. The disinterested studies of the Institute for Social and Religious Research illuminate a great many facts formerly seen but hazily through a fog of emotion and tradition. Mr. Brunner, who looks ahead to the immediate future of the country church, (p. 583) is a staff worker of the institute who has given much attention to rural community realities.

MISS ROBINSON, who writes on some puzzling aspects of education for social work (p. 589) had some trenchant observations to make on the meaning of "psychiatric" social work in The Survey for May 15, 1924.

"BREATHLESS days and no minutes to write even picture postals" have been Miss Wald's lot since she left Henry Street last spring to visit Russia, so that The Survey counts itself especially fortunate that she paused long enough to write the sketch of Margaret Bondfield in office (p. 587).

ABOUT those Neighbors, by the way, who bob in and out of The Survey's side door. Your neighbors are ours. Your neighbors who stamp themselves on your mind because they are people of distinction in thought, or spirit, or achievement, because they charm you with the color of their daily living, because they gather up in their own persons a whole sheaf of hopes and purposes in which we all share—tell us about them. The latch string's out.

IT is Giovanni Costantini, instead of Constantini as printed in the August Graphic, who painted the war pictures reproduced in that issue by courtesy of Rosika Schwimmer from whose information the introductory note was compiled. We apologize for an editorial error in spelling the painter's name.

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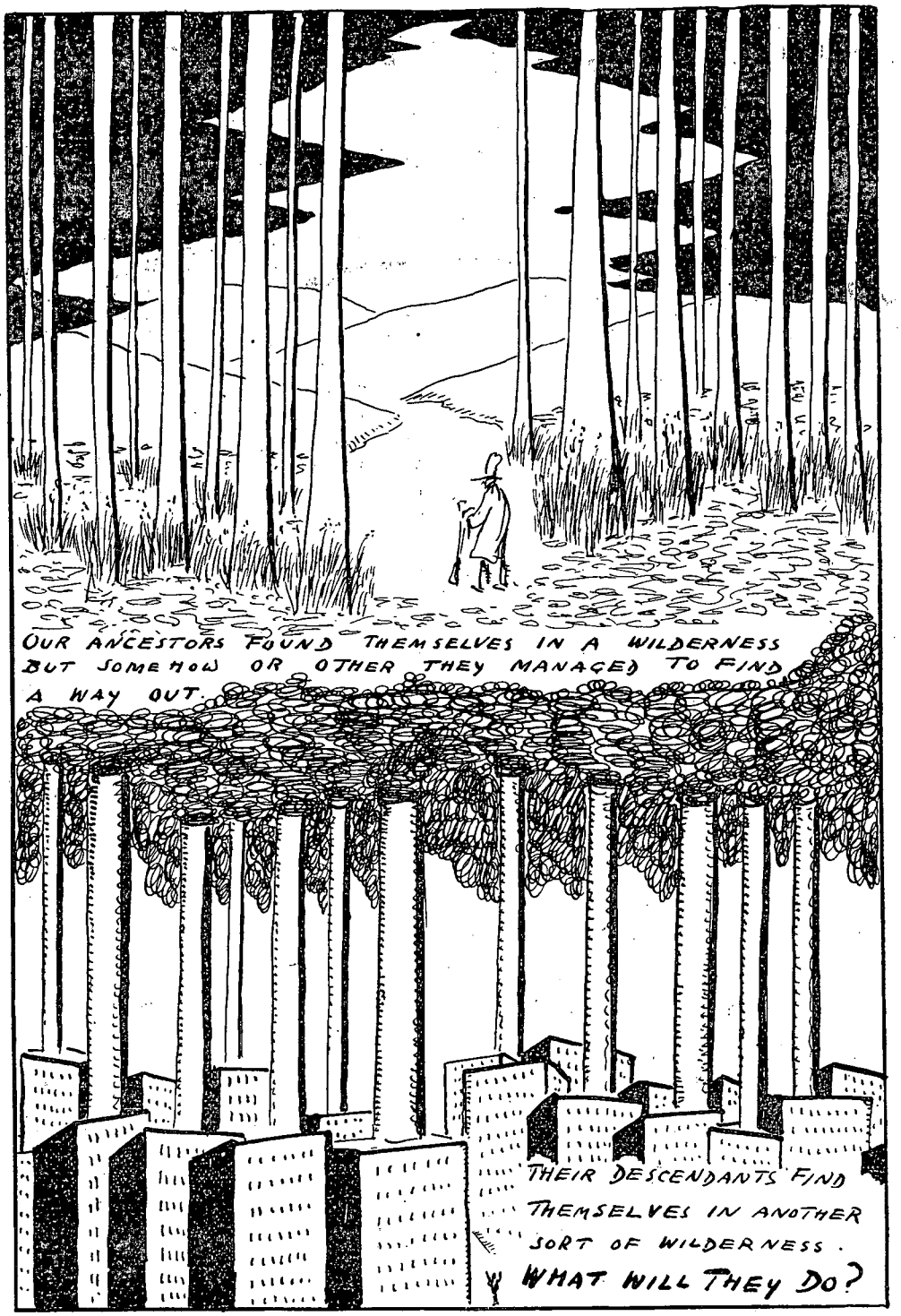
OUR ANCESTORS FOUND THEMSELVES IN A WILDERNESS
BUT SOMEHOW OR OTHER THEY MANAGED TO FIND
A WAY OUT.
THEIR DESCENDANTS FIND
THEMSELVES IN ANOTHER
SORT OF WILDERNESS.
WHAT WILL THEY DO?

Hendrik Willem Van Loon

A JOB FOR THE SCHOOLMEN?

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THE SURVEY
GRAPHIC NUMBER
SEPTEMBER 1
1924

Volume LII
No. 11

The German Revolution Goes to School

By BORIS STERN

THE reparations issue, from the Ruhr occupation to the Dawes report and the London conference, has kept a screen between the outside world and the domestic life of Germany. Yet more than sixty million people there are following the diurnal march of the sun—rising in the morning, doing the day's work, running vast industries, sharing in all the multitudinous activities of an intensely complex social and political life. What is the mainspring of that life? What has become of the post-war revolution? In what direction are these war-disillusioned people headed?

Inside the Reich, too, reparations is the overshadowing preoccupation. Whatever the visitor's subject of inquiry, he must be prepared to listen to discourse on reparations as the problem that conditions all other problems—cost of living, wages, hours, capital investment, education, recreation, partisan politics, the progress of democracy in government and industry. All things move under the heavy and inexorable restraint of reparations.

Yet they move. Not with the cataclysmic fury and wild caprice of the Proletarian or Fascist dictatorship; not with the sober, confident assurance of the British parliamentary democracy; but with a heavy Teutonic tread that nevertheless gathers momentum as it plods along. Notwithstanding the disillusionment of the war, or the possibly more poignant disillusionment of the peace, the great masses in Germany still look forward to the cooperative commonwealth, the socialization of industry, and the ultimate establishment of an industrial republic under workers' control. The partial failure of the Revolution of 1918 with its backwash of reaction brought home to them afresh the fact that they are not temperamentally constituted to follow the dramatic example of revolutionary France or Russia; that they lack the inbred political experience of the English; that as Germans they must move toward their goal through the slow processes of education and regimented self-discipline. But they have not lost sight of their goal. Their faith in its ultimate attainment is by and large the mainspring of their social and industrial life. Their thorough domestication of the Works Council, and the manner in which they are equipping themselves for the development of this instrument of democratic control, are possibly the most significant and prophetic phenomena in their contemporary life. In Germany they have put the Revolution to school.

The revolution of November 1918 was not abortive. It achieved the overthrow of the Kaiser and the Hohenzollern dynasty, which was one of its two main objectives. Its second was the socialization of all German industry. For this it was educationally unprepared. The attempt of its leaders to follow the Russian model was sophomoric and out of line with the German cultural tradition. Even before November 9, 1918, the official date of the Revolution, local Workers and Soldiers Soviets had been set up throughout the country. When the trumpets sounded the rise of the curtain, they took over the factories and proclaimed themselves masters of government. This was a magnificent gesture. But it was premature. In Germany, as contrasted with Russia, industrial organization and technique were at a high stage of development. The effective conduct of industry called for

What is the nature of this new Germany with which—if the Dawes plan is actually to be put in operation, as appears to be the case as this is written—Europe has finally come to terms? The headlines have little to say of the forces which are creating a new industrial order in the Reich. Here an American, recently home from ten months' research in Germany, traces one of those forces—one that is giving new meanings to workers' education, to revolution, perhaps to government itself.

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specialized expert skill. By common consent, the Soviets made a mess of it. There is very little authentic information as to precisely what happened in the Soviet controlled industries. But what did happen sobered the revolutionary temper. To this day, not only employers but many labor leaders as well refer to those days as the most critical in the history of German industry. During the upheavals that followed the November Revolution until the end of 1919, the Soviets were put to rout.

But their demonstration left an indelible impression upon the national attitude toward industrial ownership. The original owners resumed control of their factories, but they were no longer *Herren im Hause,* they were no longer absolute masters. Workers' committees, organized on the basis of the Revolutionary Decree of December 23, 1918, were conceded a large measure of participation not only in problems directly affecting wages, hours and similar conditions of work, but also in such matters of management as the hiring and discharge of workers. On November 15, 1918, only six days after the Soviet Revolution, the United Employers Association of Germany and the three major trade union groups—Socialist, Christian and Hirsch-Dunker—concluded the famous agreement which is still designated the Magna Charta of labor by the trade unions, although among members of the extreme Left it is more frequently referred to as *Der Grosse Betrug,* the Great Betrayal. The gist of this agreement was that German industry was to be governed by Joint Councils (*Arbeitsgemeinschaften*) consisting of equal numbers of representatives of capital and labor.

Early in 1919, Dr. Rudolf Wissel, then the economic minister of Germany, drew up his system of *"Planwirtschaft,"* (Industrial Control), with a complete and comprehensive scheme of democratic government in industry. A modified form of this plan was incorporated in Article 165 of the Weimar Constitution adopted August 11, 1919. The scheme provided for a parliamentary form of government in the industrial field similar to and parallel with that in the political state.

The lowest unit of this government corresponding to the village or town was to be the plant or establishment itself, the mine, the factory, the office. The works council, assisted by the trade union, was to represent the interest of the employes, while the employer himself, or the manager, assisted by the employers' economic organizations, the association of employers in the particular trade, was to represent the interests of capital.

The next unit was the economic district, which was to be governed by a District Economic Council, made up of an equal number of representatives of capital and labor. The representatives of capital were to be elected, some by the individual employers in the district, and some by the District Association of Employers, while the representatives of labor were to be elected, some by the district organization of the works councils (*Bezirksarbeiterräte*), and some by the trade unions in the district.

Finally, the highest unit in the scheme was to be the National Economic Council (*Reichswirtschaftsrat.*) In addition to the representatives of capital and labor, the District and National Economic Councils were to have representatives of such trades and professions and consumers' organizations as would otherwise not be represented.

With the exception of the Works Council Law passed in February, 1920, and a temporary national economic council whose functions are far more modest than those projected in the plan, the scheme has failed of realization. But the law has become the curriculum of the Revolution. It provides for the organization of councils in all establishments, industrial or otherwise, where twenty or more workers are employed. A shop steward takes the place of the council where the employes number from five to nineteen. The workers' representatives are charged not only with the duty of safeguarding the workers' interests under the customary collective agreement, but also with assisting the management to run the plant with maximum efficiency and economy. This carries them into fields which wage-workers have had little opportunity to explore. To take advantage of the new prerogative, they must acquaint themselves not only with the familiar problems of wage setting, time and overtime work, shop sanitation and the like, but also with production standards, the cost of materials, manufacturing costs, market price and profits. They are required to discuss with the employers their quarterly and yearly financial statements, covering capitalization, stocks, bonds, rents, dividends, inventories. Some of them are authorized to sit on the Board of Directors where even more complex financial matters must be considered in yet greater detail, and where decisions must be reached on large questions of policy.

Organized labor in Germany soon realized its lack of equipment for the competent execution of this revolutionary task. Its weakness exposed it to all manner of hostile assaults. But it has set itself resolutely to hold its lines while it prepares itself for a new advance.

THIS new and critical situation has given birth to a new system of workers' education. The old method of preparing trade union and socialist leaders by means of occasional lectures and propaganda meetings proved entirely inadequate. The first attempt to meet the new situation resulted in pamphlets and magazines devoted primarily to the problems before the Works Councils. A glance at the contents of these publications reveals the striking difference between them and the literature published before the Revolution. Instead of general discussions of trade union policy and methods of organization, or doctrinaire expositions of various phases of Socialism, the typical May 12, 1923, issue of the *Betriebsrätezeitschrift,* published by the Socialist Metal Workers Union, contains the following articles:

Unproductive Elements in German Industry
Problems of Unemployment Insurance
Growth of the Stinnes Trust
Productivity of Labor Before and After the War
Social and Economic Significance of the Metal Industry
The Making of Iron Tubes
Labor Members on Boards of Directors
Works Council Activities in the Ruhr

The trend of these articles is clear. It is no longer theoretical trade unionism or Socialism in general—these are left to the voluminous union and party press; it is now the shop, the factory, the plant and the industry as a whole upon which workers' education is focussed.

It is this integration of education with the going processes of industry that distinguishes workers' education in Germany from schemes bearing the same title in England and America. With us, workers' education is for the most part the traditional cultural education carried over from the

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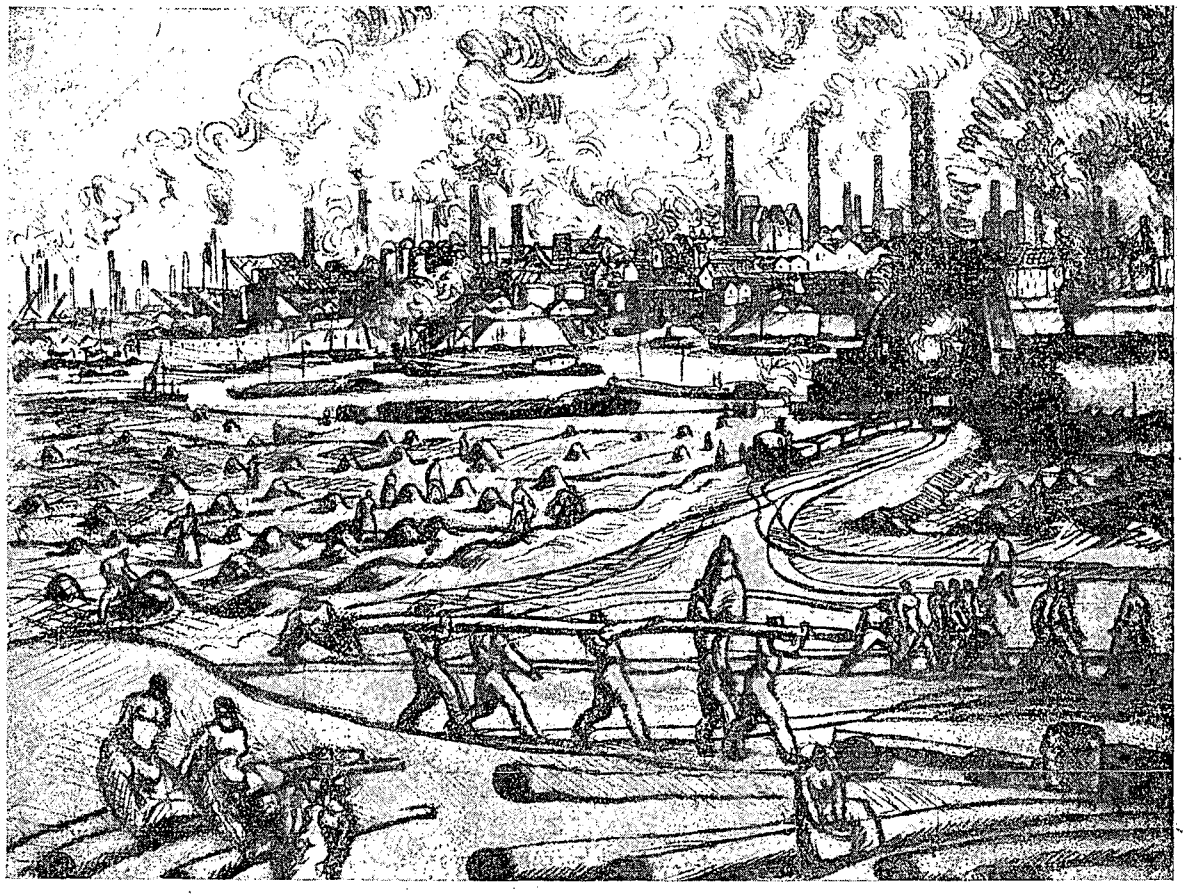

THE IRON RHINE — *F. M. Jansen*

classical schools with almost imperceptible modifications; it maintains the traditional divorce between the school and the workshop as carriers of culture. By the same token, it keeps alive the prevailing sense that political and industrial government are two separate and distinct entities moving in two distinct spheres that make tangential contacts only. The basic conception in the new development of workers' education in Germany is that in an industrial civilization all government arises out of industrial government, that they who govern industry and the economic life govern the nation. It is for this reason that the Works Councils have been accepted as the schools of the Revolution.

AMONG the numerous projects for the advancement of workers' education so centered upon the Works Councils, the most important are the so-called Flying Courses, the Trade Union Seminars, the *Betriebsräteschule* in Berlin, and the Academy of Labor in Frankfurt-am-Main.

The Flying Courses were organized first by the Metal Workers Union and are now also used by the Miners', Shoe Workers' and Agricultural Workers' Unions. Their originator was Dr. Georg Engelbert Graf, now the Educational Director of the Metal Workers' Union. A graduate of the University of Berlin, a talented musician and orchestra conductor, a writer of popular books on the Formation of the Earth and the Descent of Man from the Monkey, Dr. Graf became interested first in the Socialist Youth Movement with which he is still connected and later with the New Workers' Education. Under his supervision, the entire territory covered by the union, which has a membership of over one and a half million, was divided into educational districts each containing at least one large steel plant. A quiet little town is selected in the immediate vicinity of the plant where the educational director gathers from 60 to 80 members of the works councils or union secretaries for a period of from two and a half to three weeks. The workers are usually selected by the local unions. They are altogether freed from their regular labor and receive part of their wage for the support of their families either from the local union or from the central office. During the period of instruction they form a cooperative community doing their own housework. Dr. Graf is a teetotaler, and one of his requirements is that during the three weeks of sojourn with him, the workers abstain absolutely from any kind of alcoholic beverage--the first inroad of prohibition in Germany.

The instruction is carried on by the educational director himself with the assistance of whatever local talent he can get, usually university professors or industrial engineers. The method is chiefly Socratic, with occasional lectures. The workers receive from five to six hours of instruction daily on the following subjects:

The Nature and Development of Modern Capitalism
Problems of Socialization
Workers' Rights and Social Insurance
Rights and Duties of the Works Council
Technical and Commercial Problems in the Metal Industry

I met Dr. Graf in Cassel, at the Biennial Congress of the Metal Workers Union during the week of February 17-23, 1924. He said that although the courses were too short and the time might well be doubled or trebled, the workers are gaining a great deal from the Flying Courses.

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During their stay together they exchange their experiences with their respective employers and boards of adjustment—in this way gaining even more information than from the actual instruction. During free hours, they visit the nearby factories, usually under the guidance of some industrial expert. The cultural side is served by nature studies in the nearby fields and forests, the most beloved form of recreation of the educational director, and by visits to the theatre or concerts—such activities often being improvised by the group itself.

The Trade Union Seminars have been organized in the larger industrial centers, where resources for something more thorough-going than the Flying Courses are available, by the combined trade union organizations (Socialist, Christian and Hirsch-Dunker), assisted by, or under the direct supervision of some university. The German universities have responded liberally to the educational needs of the workers and have assisted them with class rooms and instructors. Especially valuable has been the work of the Political Science Institute at Münster under the leadership of Professor Phlenge and Engineer Rudolph Woldt. In agreement with the three major unions this institute gave during the years 1921 five trade union seminars, each for a period of six weeks. The students were either members of the Works Councils or union officials, sent by the unions. All the expenses including the maintenance of the students and their families were covered by the unions. The number of students attending these courses varied from 50 to 70. The instruction was carried out by means of lectures, with a very liberal use of the film and a special system of diagrams for which the courses became famous throughout Germany. The center of attention was the industrial establishment and its financial and economic problems. Thus Professor Phlenge lectured on:

1. Capitalist Society and the Industrial Establishment
2. The State and the Establishment
3. Business Cycles and the Establishment
4. The Industrial Establishment and the Modern Market

Similarly Engineer Dr. Ellinghaus lectured on the Principles of Modern Industry, and Problems and Methods of Modern Industrial Organization. Again, Engineer R. Woldt lectured on:

1. The Worker and the Establishment
2. The Establishment and Its Social Significance

In addition, the workers received instruction in Industrial Hygiene, in Modern Workers' Psychology, in Money and Banking and Bookkeeping. The field of Unionism was covered by courses on Modern Union Organizations, The Place of Trade Unions in Modern Society, Collective Agreements and Arbitration—always with special reference to the concrete problems before the Works Councils.

Finally, permanent Works Council schools and Economic Colleges have been organized, the first by the unions themselves and the latter by the unions in cooperation with the government. Of the first the most important is the Works Council School in Berlin organized by the Socialist Federation in 1920. The school survived the hardships of the inflation period which were followed by the greater evil of unemployment. During the academic year of 1923-1924 it carried on two semesters of courses in six different sections of Greater Berlin. It is open to all members of the Socialist unions. A nominal enrollment fee is charged individual members, but the larger expenses are covered by the Federation of Socialist Unions. The school is avowedly socialist so that in addition to bookkeeping, accountancy, industrial management, industrial hygiene and the like, it offers courses on socialism, the class struggle, and the economics of Karl Marx.

The courses are divided into three groups: for beginners, intermediate and advanced students. Not more than 25 students are registered in any course. The instructors are teachers from the commercial and technical colleges; engineers, Socialist party and trade union leaders.

At the head of the various experiments in workers' education in Germany stands the Academy of Labor in Frankfurt-am-Main. It is a part of the University of Frankfurt and was organized by means of a special agreement, the parties to which were the three major unions, the Ministers of Education and Science, and the city and the university of Frankfurt. According to this agreement, the academy is to admit each year 100 students sent by the unions. Its object is primarily to train trade union leaders. Although chief emphasis is again placed on such industrial and technical problems as come before the Works Councils, much time is also devoted to labor legislation, political science and law. Special attention is given to the natural sciences and at least one course a semester is devoted to the fundamentals of philosophy. The students are given all the privileges of the university grounds including the use of the large economics library of the Institute of Political Science which is also a part of the university. The academic year is divided into two semesters, four months each, separated by a vacation period of four weeks. The course of studies is arranged by the director with the assistance of the teaching staff and a committee of students. The first semester began on May 2, 1921, and lasted through August. The second semester continued from September 1921 through January 1922. The work of the first year was so successful that the trade unions of Switzerland asked permission to send some of their members, so that during the second and third years of its existence, the Academy of Labor had 110 students including the Swiss workers. It carried on even during the worst months of the German inflation in the fall of 1923, although neither the government nor the city of Frankfurt were in a position to contribute their agreed share of expenses. Because of shortage of funds, it remains closed during the summer months of 1924, but will reopen in the fall. The unions attach such importance to its work that unless they themselves are destroyed, the future of the Academy of Labor is assured.

IT is significant that in spite of the extremely divergent ultimate aims of the various labor organizations in supporting the works councils, the Communists, Socialists, and the more moderate Christian and Hirsch-Dunker Unions, all agree as to the immediate need of education, and as to the value of the councils as the heart and center of the new workers' educational movement because they convert the workshop itself into a school. The workers must be trained to understand modern industry and to master its technical problems so that when the time comes, whether by revolution or otherwise, when the working class is again called upon to take over the full responsibility of industrial government, they shall not repeat the dismal failure of the Soviets in 1918. When before in all history has a revolution been so deliberately bound out to school?

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The Negro Builds for Himself

The Rosenwald Schools—an episode in an epic of education

By JOSEPH K. HART

THE typical epic is always a stirring story of the wanderings of the human race, or of some fragment of it, from a country of barbarous warfares, across desolate lands and perilous seas, to some safe haven of reminiscent happiness. In the course of these journeyings, through the masterful control of every adventure, the wanderers win that disciplined strength and capacity which is sufficient to become the foundation of a noble and lasting civilization. In some cases this story is crowded within the limits of a single heroic life; in others, it covers many centuries, beginning in an all-but-forgotten past of mystery and legend, and ending, in the days of the story-teller, in a time of unexampled splendor and renown.

Something of this epic quality inheres in the story of the American Negroes. They too, have come from a country of barbarous warfares; they have spent generations in the desolate lands—of slavery and premature freedom; they are by way, now, of coming into the safer regions of disciplined strength and independent capacity. At least, no one can understand their story who sees nothing of this adventuresome quality in it.

To be sure this struggle of theirs with the fates was not self-initiated, nor self-willed. The *deus ex machina* of white necessity, a god with features that seem, at times, not unlike those of Satan himself, found them in their African villages and jungles, tore them loose from their rootages in their native cultures, and cast them out upon the first stage of these racial adventurings. Since those beginnings, they have spent varying fractions of two-and-a-half centuries in slavery, a condition worse in some respects than African barbarism. "Emancipation" and "reconstruction" brought new, unsuspected and undesired responsibilities, which came near swamping the not-too-seaworthy craft upon which they were afloat. But within the last score of years, they have begun to come through the storms into a fourth stage of their wanderings; they are now on something that seems to many of them a real *terra firma,* their feet upon the land, the promise of permanent progress and human culture quite definitely within their grasp. The realization of that promise is their task in the coming generations.

In the period since nominal "freedom" came to them, they have been sadly torn between two programs, the politico-economic panacea, as a cure for all their deprivations, and the educational struggle to fit themselves for participation in those human cultures which were won by the older races through longer centuries of still more stirring epic enterprises. On the whole, the second of these competing programs is in the ascendant; even its former opponents are beginning to see and to admit that there is little hope of accomplishing the first save through the more complete fulfillment of the second.

Education by means of schools has been somewhat laggard in the South. "Public education" was practically undreamed of there before the Civil War. The older pioneering individualism, which has done so much in the conquest and settlement of the wilderness, was one obstacle in the way of permitting the neighborhood to become a

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Old Canetuck and New Canetuck, Pender County. Private contributions of $1?.co started the fund that made the difference

community and to think about the educational needs of the people.

But ever since the Civil War the drift has been toward an education supported by public taxation; and in the last twenty years great progress has been made in this direction. The public school has lost most of its old taint of being an eleemosynary institution; it has begun to seem like a reputable instrument of the democratic community for the accomplishment of a justifiable end—the education of all the children—of all the people. Well, not quite that—.

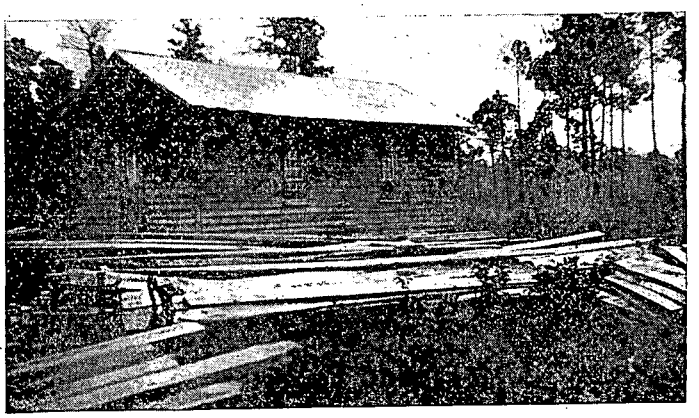
Pretty generally, the Negroes have had to wait for their chance. To be sure, there have been schools for Negroes, in the South, at least since 1862, when the Penn School was founded on St. Helena Island, South Carolina. Since the close of the Civil War, many religious denominations, and several special "funds," including the Slater Fund, the General Education Board, the Jeanes Fund and the Phelps-Stokes Fund have been engaged in building other schools all over the South. But we must remember that each of these agencies had only a limited program. They built single schools, or a few schools, here and there. None of these programs nor all of them together made inclusive provision for the education of all the Negroes of the whole South. Hampton was an effective pioneer, and Tuskegee, later, caught the imagination of the whole country. But with some two million Negro children at any one time to be dealt with, it can be seen that not much more than the surface of the task was touched.

THE real beginnings of a comprehensive program of schools for all the children of black parentage in the South date from 1912, when Booker T. Washington succeeded in interesting Julius Rosenwald, who was already a supporter of Tuskegee Institute, in the more general project. The now well known Rosenwald Fund for the promotion of Negro education was established in October, 1917.*

The Rosenwald plan, in brief, provides for a definite grant of moneys to any rural community in any southern state (West Virginia and Missouri not included), for the purpose of building a public school for the Negro children, on the condition that the Negroes of the community, by their own contributions of cash, land or labor, by gifts from white friends, or by grants from public funds, should raise in each case an amount equal to or greater than the sum assigned from the Rosenwald Fund.

* A detailed account of this plan was given in The Survey for March 15, 1923, p. 788.

The state of North Carolina has been a leader in Negro education, as in the progressive education of the whites. It has built more Rosenwald schools than any other state. The state program for the education of the Negroes is one of the most enlightened and humane in the South. Its results are shown in the personal, social, civic, and economic advances of the people. Materials for the illustration of these outcomes will be drawn from that state.*



The small community of Addor, Moore County, sent three cases a month to the courts, while the old schoolhouse and everything it stood for fell into decay

The development of schools and educational programs under the operation of the Rosenwald Fund has revealed many unsuspected phases of human nature. It has called for the organized effort of Negro groups and communities; for the cooperation of the neighborly whites; for the approval and the support of the local and state educational authorities; for the acceptance by the state of the proposition that the Negro has the right to whatever education he can take on. And every one of these demands has been, in some measure, honored.

But the Negroes are mostly extremely poor; the white neighbors have had to overcome the prejudices and traditions of generations; public authorities have had to be careful that their interest in this program did not do it more harm than good; and it has not been easy for the Old South to accept the doctrine of universal Negro education. None the less, the experiment has been going forward for some

* These materials have been furnished by the staff of the Division of Negro Education of the State Department of Public Instruction, of which N. C. Newbold has been the director for many years. W. F. Credle, the supervisor of the Rosenwald Fund for North Carolina, and G. E. Davis, superior of Rosenwald buildings, have also contributed largely toward this article.

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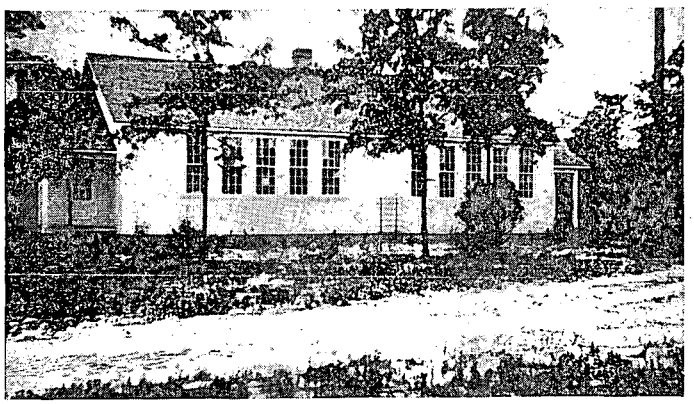
ten years in fourteen different states, and results are beginning to appear that are of more than merely local interest.

The Negroes themselves are responsible in the first count for the success or failure of the Rosenwald program. They must ask for such a school for their community, and they must want it enough to help raise the money to pay for it.

In many instances they buy the land and deed it to the county for school purposes, often paying cash for a four or five-acre tract. In almost every instance they contribute voluntarily from $500 to $2,000 toward the cost of the school, in addition to whatever they pay in public taxes. They are almost everywhere willing to pay this special tax in order to get the building and the school. (In one instance, in Mississippi, the Negroes petitioned the legislature to put an end to this system, by which they were seeming to pay double taxes.) They have a very great faith in the miracle-working powers of the school.

A few illustrations will make clear their attitudes. In a rural community known as Trinity, in Randolph County, for more than thirty years the children had been housed in a rude and unfurnished building originally built by the Freedmen's Bureau. They had long wanted and worked



The new school in Addor, Lincoln Park, is a center for folks of all ages. It costs $5,300, of which Negroes contributed $1,000, the public $3,200, and the Rosenwald Fund $1,100

for a better and larger building. Though very poor and owning but little land, with the help of the state department they raised $1,100 for a school building to be built on land which they gave to the county. At the first meeting held to raise the money, the workers donated $200. Of this $54, in pennies, nickles and dimes, was brought to the table in a shot bag by a little school girl. This represented sacrifices, by the children of the school, of lunches and other things children love.

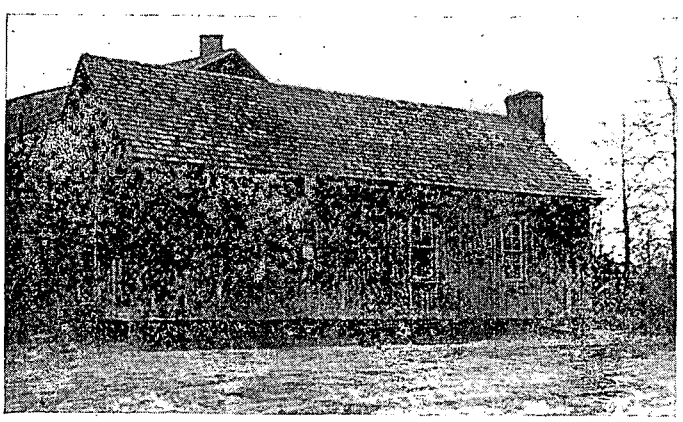
At another point, in Union County, the people were promised a school building if they would raise among themselves $1,000. This they did; but the county superintendent found upon investigation that they needed a larger building, requiring $1600. They raised the amount. Now they have six acres of land; and a splendid building with an auditorium is being put up. These stories are typical of North Carolina communities.

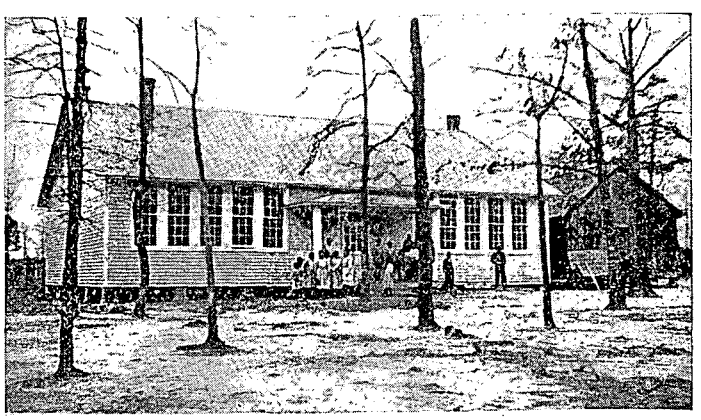
"Box parties" are often given to raise money for a school building. An acre of cotton may be planted and the profits from the sale of it applied on the school. In many sections hogs and chickens are raised by the community to obtain money for buildings. At Lumber Bridge, in Robeson County, the people gave seventy thousand feet of lumber for framing and sheathing. This was cut from their own lands, hauled by their own teams to a saw mill owned by themselves, sawed by bill, and laid down on a school lot purchased with their own funds.

In the past two years, the colored people of the state have paid $171,000 by private subscription for rural school buildings. This is based on completed projects. There is probably $15,000 more held in banks and in the hands of county superintendents awaiting the completion of buildings in the current year.

In the second place, the success of this Rosenwald program depends upon the cooperation of the white people. In most cases this is now assured. For example, speaking generally, the white people have subscribed more than $44,000 toward the cost of colored rural schools in the state, in addition to whatever they have paid in taxes. The state has a large number of whites, both men and women, who are deeply interested in these problems. For example, Miss M. B. Lee, member of the board of education at Mocksville, in Davie County, enlisted her friends in the campaign for a Rosenwald school in that town, attended a meeting called by the state department for the purpose of raising funds, subscribed liberally herself, and secured subscriptions from many others.

At Maxton, in Robeson County, a town of 1400 population, the Rosenwald school plant is valued at more than $25,000. It is of brick, with eight modern classrooms and an auditorium. H. C. McNair, one of the white business men of the town, gave almost all of his time for a long while to supervising the construction and raising the money to take care of the cost. Measured in dollars and cents





The old school in Norrington, Harnett County, dated back to the open fireplace era

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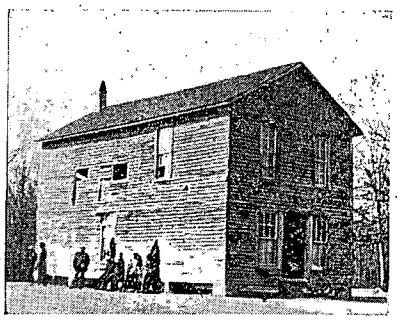


The children of Trinity, Randolph County, who raised among themselves $54.00 in nickels and pennies to apply toward a Rosenwald school, and the old school, an abandoned lodge hall, that they turned their backs on

the interest of this one man was worth at least $10,000 to the school.

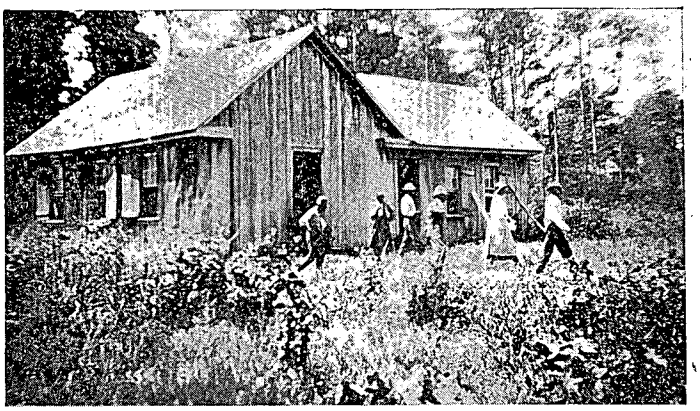
The little town of Hertford (1700 population) provides another story of the same sort. The old schoolhouse was one that had been abandoned by the white people years ago. It was a two-room, two-story building, with an inside stairway with doors opening on the inside. Plans were being made to add two rooms to each end of this building, and work was ready to begin, when H. C. Stokes, a white citizen, became convinced that such action could not be justified. Funds were scarce, it is true. The plan that was recommended as being suitable contained eight large classrooms and an auditorium forty-five feet by seventy-five feet, cloak rooms, an office, and a library. Not to be defeated in his purpose, Mr. Stokes employed day carpenters and supervised the buying of materials and the construction of the building, giving only a few hours on Saturday afternoons to his own business. The building is now complete. The white people of the community are almost as proud of it as the colored people, as is usually the case when a good building is finally completed.

Now and then, it is true, the whites prove not to be wholly sympathetic. But, even so, the plans are not always defeated. In Yadkin County a colored community of sixty families was sending its children to a school that was being held in an old leaky church down in a hollow, with only a smoky stove to keep the place comfortable. They heard that the Rosenwald Fund would help them if they would do something for themselves. The superintendent of schools and the white people would not let them have a site on the public highway. A Baptist minister gave them an acre. They bought one acre adjoining it and so came up to requirements. They raised among themselves $1,100 in cash. The county with some reluctance granted them $700. They now have a beautiful building on a hill. Since the building was put up a Mothers' Club has been organized, they have bought a machine and a stove, and sewing and cooking have been introduced.

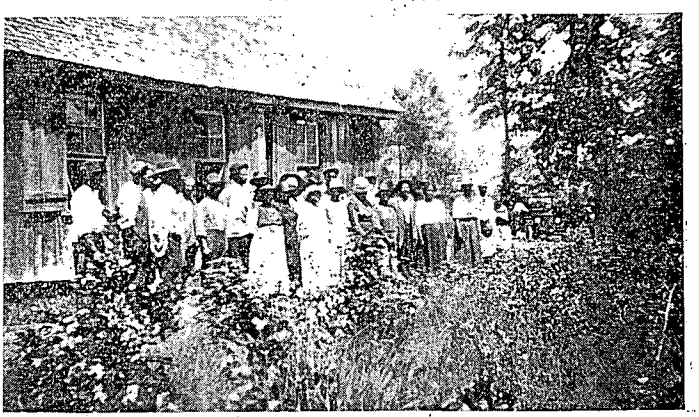
Rosenwald schools are not possible where the county superintendents are indifferent. North Carolina is fortunate in having excellent school men in several of the counties where the colored population is densest. Superintendents A. E. Akers of Halifax County, which has a colored rural school population of over seven thousand, J. Edward Allen of Warren County, with a rural colored school population of nearly five thousand, and A. B. Cameron of Moore County with almost three thousand rural colored children, have practically rebuilt their colored schools with attractive Rosenwald buildings. Most of these replaced old buildings, and many of them are better than the white schoolhouses in the same district.

THE erection of better school buildings for both white and colored people is the direct outgrowth of the stimulus furnished by the Rosenwald building campaign in the South. The plans distributed by the fund embody all of the hygienic requirements of a modern schoolhouse. Such important matters as the placement of windows, the ventilation of the classrooms, the location of the cloak rooms, the color of the paint, have been emphasized in these plans and the good results are to be seen in all of the school buildings that have been erected within the past three years. School officials who are daily using the Rosenwald plans for buildings for both white and colored children are unanimous in their approval; so possibly the greatest practical and material result of this program in North Carolina is the decided improvement which has been made in the planning and building of better schoolhouses for all.

With improved school plants—larger sites, adequate classroom space, better homes and good teachers—



The old schoolhouse at Killingsford, Harnett County—



and the people who said "We want a Rosenwald school." The contract has been let for a four-room building

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the improvement in the morale of the colored population has been almost phenomenal. In the erection of almost every building which has received aid from the fund, the patrons of the school have contributed from their own personal funds. This one thing has done much to unite the people in a program for the common good and has caused them to take an interest in their community life which would have been impossible without the stimulus furnished by this movement.

The story of Addor in Moore County is in point. Addor is a small community; but before the coming of the Rosenwald school it was furnishing three cases a month to the courts. Three years ago a new principal, Albert S. Gaston, came to the old school. He took hold of the problem of education in and of the community with a new vigor. His own account of developments in these three years shows the problem of the community and the quality of leadership needed:

A. E. Akers, superintendent of Halifax County schools, who has caused $75,000 to be spent for Rosenwald schools in the past five years; and the school committee of Norrington, Harnett County, a community that has achieved its Rosenwald school

Upon our arrival in Addor in October 1921 we found that interest in matters educational had been shattered by some unfortunate circumstances and any one entering on such a mission was the least welcome. Only one family was interested, and that was the "Tator Family." Old man "Dictator" was anxious to lay down the law, in the parent-teachers' meeting on the opening day of school. Old lady "Spec-tator" was on hand to inform all, on the next day, who were not present to see and hear. Brother "Agi-tator" was there to kindle anew old troubles.

We began within a month to raise funds for a new school. At the first meeting we were able to raise only twenty-six dollars. We visited several towns on Friday nights with a program by the school children. The interest of both children and parents followed every move. In the last meetings ten minutes was all that was required to raise a hundred dollars. Now, since the erection of the new building not only a change is seen in the children's conduct and interest, but in that of the parents as well, some of whom had not been over to the "old schoolhouse" in twelve years. They have beaten a path to the door of the new building, bringing flowers to be set out, coming to programs, and visiting daily classes.

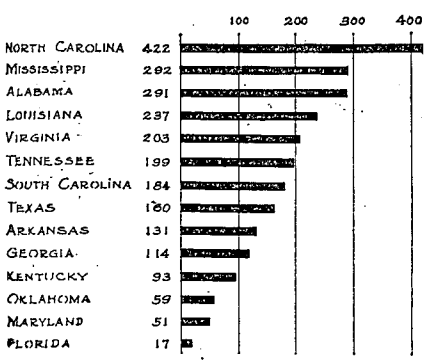
And these "grown-ups" who considered themselves too large to go to school now regret their lost time and are making rapid changes for better citizenship. The court cases from Addor have fallen off. There have been but two in the past year. We are now making a splendid effort to raise money for a Rosenwald teachers' home.

One of the obstacles in the education of colored children has been the untrained teacher. Graduates of the better schools have been unwilling to go into the rural districts and teach in buildings that were entirely inadequate in size and were in such a bad state of repair that proper heating was impossible. The Rosenwald schoolhouse has in a large measure obviated this objection. Good buildings attract properly equipped, well trained teachers.

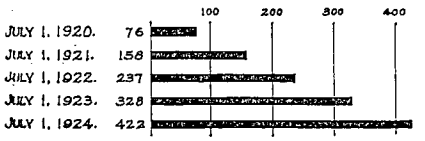
But even with better schoolhouses, another handicap exists, namely, the difficulty of finding a suitable boarding place in strictly rural districts. This is being overcome by the building of teachers' homes. The contributions which the fund makes toward these are very liberal and the plans are all that can be desired. In addition to providing a place where the teacher may live throughout the year, these houses serve as models for the people of the community who wish to improve their own living conditions.

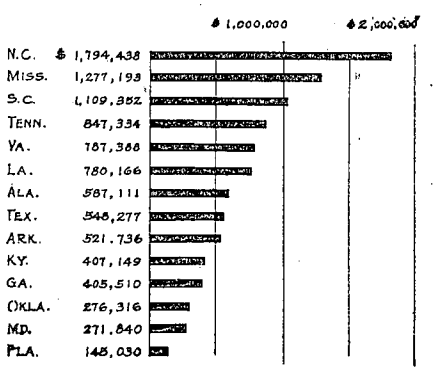
And the people are not slow to follow the suggestion. Wherever a new schoolhouse or a teacher's home is built, the people of the community begin to whitewash their own homes, to clean up their yards, to beautify their premises, generally; and to paint the community church. Nothing is more evident in the better negro communities than the silent but insistent teaching of these neighborhood improvements. When a family moves, it usually wants to move nearer to a Rosenwald school.

This program as it has developed in North Carolina and probably in most other states, too, is, as we have seen, much more than a mere provision for schools and for education in the narrower sense of the word. It is a movement toward a more complete civilization. It has economic, civic, moral and religious bearings. A story told by W. F. Credle, of the state department of education, shows this touch of the human element. Mr. Credle had gone with the county superintendent of Stanley County to a meeting on ways and means of raising money for the erection of a new schoolhouse. The major effort of the meeting (*Continued on page* 596)



To the left, the number of Rosenwald schools in North Carolina compared with the numbers in other states. Below, five years' progress in building Rosenwald schools in North Carolina. To the right, the cost of Rosenwald schools in North Carolina as compared with costs in other states





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Now That Jerry Has Time to Live

By S. ADELE SHAW

"Beginning August 16," reads a newspaper of a year ago, "the twelve-hour day for steel workers will be abolished and the eight-hour day plan will be put into effect." Has this enormous and long-sought change actually come to pass in a year? What has it meant to workers, to the industry? The Cabot Fund commissioned Miss Shaw (formerly managing editor of The Survey) to make the rounds of the steel centers and find out. She tells here, in outline, what she found.

JERRY—Jerry Brown—in his store clothes and with his shoes shined, stood leaning against an iron fence on Ann Street, Homestead, on the flats between the railroad and the river. It was a soft spring day such as makes the buds burst and the grass turn green.

Jerry worked on the cinder pit at the rolling mill but his turn would not come until late evening. When he had slept himself out that afternoon he did not put on the grimy mill clothes but dressed for the street as he used to do every other Sunday when the short turn came at the mill.

Nothing of importance was going on in the quiet street yet the Negro was looking intently at something.

"Hello, Jerry. What are you doing today?" The inquirer had seen him the day before.

"Lookin'. Jus' lookin'—at those autos." He nodded to a line of them parked up the side street. "Reckon that's how I spend my time now—findin' out what's goin' on in the world."

It was Jerry's clothes and his leisurely manner as he leaned against the fence in the sunshine that had attracted the questioner's attention. She had seen other mill men with that air the same day and it seemed unnatural. She had been used to seeing these men as they came out in groups from the mill gate at the change of shifts, fagged after their twelve hours before the furnace, Turkish towels about the open necks of their shirts wet in the back to the belt. At every corner the groups would grow smaller as the men turned in to their homes to wash up, eat, go to bed, get into their mill clothes and go in on their turn again. Only during the steel strike of 1919 had she seen so many steel workers out of mill clothes on the streets of the towns.

But the short day had come to steel workers in Homestead (just a year ago as this is written) and Jerry's "lookin'" was one of its results.

The man had been nine years in the Homestead mills. He had a wife and three children. He said he was glad of the change and that all the men were, that he wouldn't go back to the long day "for anything in the world." He would like more money of course but "the rest makes up for the money, though it means my children haven't got so many clothes now. That is where we make up the difference."

Down the street a German was on the porch playing with his little girl while he waited for his wife to have dinner ready at 1; he would go to the mill at 3. At 11 that night, he said, he would be off for home, have a wash, go to bed, be up "at a decent hour and have the morning free." He changed shifts each week-end. He "hated" the turn from 11 P. M. to 7 A. M. He was in the rolling mills and worked on tonnage.

"The men make just as much money on eight hours as they did on twelve," he said, "for they turn out just as much."

He had worked at the mill for twelve years until 1915. Then he left because of the long hours. As soon as the eight-hour day was announced he went back to the mill, for it was near his home. He wouldn't work twelve hours "for $1,000 a day." He spent his leisure time "cleaning up about the house, going to the store for the wife, enjoying the children."

THE next morning the interviewer sat in the offices of one of the largest steel companies of the Pittsburgh district, talking across the great mahogany table with one of its high officials.

"We went over without a ripple," he began, speaking of the change to three shifts in their mills. "The striking thing about it was how easily it was done. There was no interference with production—nothing. It was a great surprise to us all.

"The superintendents for the most part were glad of the change. They were waiting for it, and I might say there were none who were not enthusiastic over the results. The men are perfectly satisfied, even the foreigners who we used to think wanted the longer hours for the larger pay.

"We thought we would have to bring in thousands of new men, but we didn't. We changed over in August when things were dull. This gave us opportunity to use many of our own men on the third shift who would otherwise have been out of work and that fact made the change go more smoothly. Besides men on the job were more content with the smaller earnings since they were glad to have work in a somewhat slack period.

"For the most part we did not have to get men from the outside. Labor drifted in from the community. Young men who used to drive grocery wagons came to the mills where before they had refused to work because of the twelve-hour day. Men who used to work for us but quit because of the hours came back and asked for jobs. We wanted them because they were trained workers."

The official discussed the labor brought in from the outside, the southern Negroes and the Mexicans. He remarked that about one-fifth of the company's workers were now Negroes. He commented that their experience with the Mexicans had been "excellent." Discussion of these new recruits carried the conversation over to the housing problem.

"We have had a housing problem, an acute one, for a

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long time," he said. "The change to three shifts has increased but not intensified it. There are practically no houses for the newcomers so they cannot bring their families. If the men had houses they would stay. As it is they leave.

"You'll be interested to know that one of our greatest difficulties today is to find enough parking space for the automobiles of the workmen. This means that the men are coming from greater distances. Since the introduction of the shorter day we have men coming from farms fifteen miles from the mill. This is one answer to the housing problem."

The executive turned suddenly to a discussion of the eight-hour day. He said he thought his company would soon go completely over to eight hours. The twelve-hour men had gone. The ten-hour men in his opinion should go also.

"I believe the company will save money by putting all men on eight hours," he said. "We have some superintendents today who are ready to go on record that the ten-hour men loaf about two hours and that eight hours would bring about the same results in production as ten. We have not demonstrated this. We have made no scientific studies."

The conversation moved to the effect the change in hours would have on the movement to organize the steel workers. The observer was interested, for this official represented one of the companies which had come to be known as "hard-boiled" in its relations with its men. As he spoke she recalled that he had once told her how he had been shut up virtually as a prisoner in the company's offices for nine weeks during the steel strike of 1919.

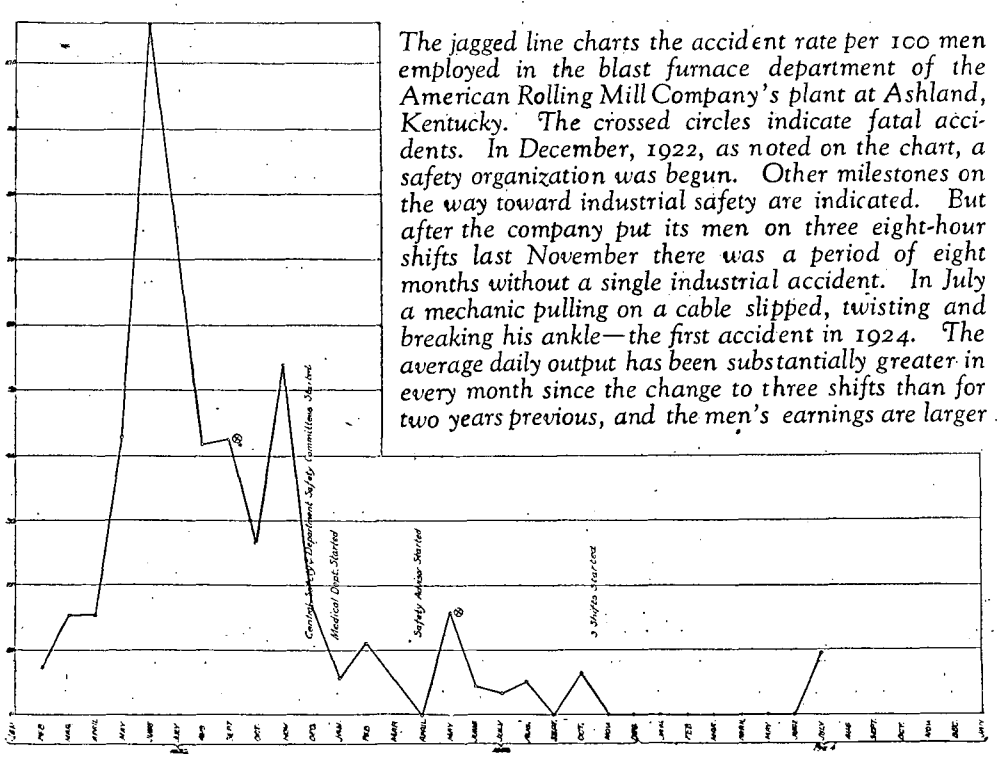
"I don't believe discontent is the reason for the organization of labor," he said. "It may help the organizers to bring it about, but organization itself comes from other and more fundamental causes. It is natural to men and always will be. Some of the best workers are those that talk their heads off kicking at the company."

These interviews might have been held in any one of a number of districts in which the change to shorter hours has been made, from Pittsburgh to Birmingham to Chicago.

They point to social facts which are revolutionizing labor conditions in the steel towns. The Negro, typifying by his race the new common labor in the mills, shows labor's slow awakening in its new leisure to the world outside the plants. The German shows the coming to the mills of a worker with a higher standard of living, his home life already adjusted to short hours. The interview with the executive demonstrates clearly what another executive meant when he said: "The short hours will bring about a change in the whole of industrial relations in steel and that is what has cost the industry money."

BUT before looking into the future what about the change itself? How far has the long day been eliminated and what are some of the results in efficiency?

The steel industry cannot be pictured as having wiped out the twelve-hour day and the seven-day week last August, following Judge Gary's order to eliminate the long day in the U. S. Steel Corporation's plants, nor can the steel workers be visualized as now comfortably enjoying a forty-eight-hour week. The report recently prepared by the Cabot Fund shows that men still work twelve hours a day for seven days a week in the steel industry; that the seven-day week prevails where the eight-hour day has been introduced on continuous processes, and that the majority of steel workers in the basic processes work from 56 to 60 hours a week. This means that where the three-shift system has been installed the seven-day week remains, with the eight-hour men working sixteen hours—though not usually sixteen consecutive hours—out of twenty-four, two week-ends out of every three, at the change of shift. It means that many companies which have "gone over" have not eliminated the long day in all of their plants. It means that the independents in Alabama and in the Philadelphia district have not changed over. Ohio is probably but 80 per cent over but is moving forward slowly and carefully. Pittsburgh independents have dug in, with only 70 per cent of the plants on the shorter day. Interesting in this connection is the statement of the Charity Organization Society in that city that "the majority of our clients [among steel workers] still on the twelve-hour day."



The jagged line charts the accident rate per 100 men employed in the blast furnace department of the American Rolling Mill Company's plant at Ashland, Kentucky. The crossed circles indicate fatal accidents. In December, 1922, as noted on the chart, a safety organization was begun. Other milestones on the way toward industrial safety are indicated. But after the company put its men on three eight-hour shifts last November there was a period of eight months without a single industrial accident. In July a mechanic pulling on a cable slipped, twisting and breaking his ankle—the first accident in 1924. The average daily output has been substantially greater in every month since the change to three shifts than for two years previous, and the men's earnings are larger

IN Ashland, Ky., the American Rolling Mill Company operates two blast furnaces. They are the old-type hand-filled furnaces presenting many considerations in a change to three shifts which do not come up with the modern furnace. The company put the furnaces on three shifts last November. No additional men were required under two-furnace operation. When but one furnace was operated, however, eleven addi-

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tional men had to be added to the force. The average daily output, for two years previous 256 tons for a furnace, has averaged 300 tons or more every month since the change. The average in March was 345 tons daily. Both the furnace men on eight hours and the maintenance men on ten hours have increased their earnings on the new schedule through a bonus system, and while the company modestly refrains from giving specific figures as to their profits under the new system they state: "You can readily see that our total cost of manufacture is slightly lower now than it was before November." Although the accident rate had been decreasing previous to the change in hours, largely due to a safety campaign, the first month after the new system was introduced the rate dropped to zero and remained there for eight months until July when one man pulling on a cable broke his ankle.

Costs in some departments of the American Rolling Mill Company have been increased with the shorter day. "But," says the general manager, "I am of the opinion that if all departments were balanced one against the other and all factors taken into consideration, our costs have not been increased because of the introduction of the three shifts."

Such a record is rare. It is the result of careful study and experiment on the part of the company lasting over a period of years. There are other instances, however, where the introduction of three shifts has been made with no increase in the number of men in certain departments. Increase in production is almost universally reported and where the men have been put on a tonnage basis or a bonus system their earnings are as great or greater in eight and ten hours than in twelve.

The average increase in the number of men on the blast furnaces and in the open hearth departments is generally placed at 12½ per cent. The rolling mills generally are running on the same force as formerly, for these mills have changed only to two ten-hour shifts and the men are turning out the same product in twenty hours as formerly they did in twenty-four. Their earnings have actually increased since rates were put up when hours were reduced.

On the other hand, men on an hourly basis find their pay envelopes flatter than formerly. This is especially true of the ten-hour men for it appears that while former twelve-hour men reduced to eight hours have in all cases received ten hours pay for the eight hours work, men reduced from twelve to ten hours have by no means universally been given eleven hours pay for ten hours' work.

WITH these results to both employer and worker it looks as though the shorter day in steel, where it has been introduced, were here to stay. "The steel industry is not going back to the twelve-hour day even during war time," said the president of a large steel company in the Pittsburgh district. And so Americans are interested in the results in the homes and the families of these workers.

The effect on the pay envelope shows up when one visits the towns and talks with the shopmen and merchants. There is no evidence at the grocery and meat shops of a falling off in the purchase of food stuffs. Candy and confectionery stores report increased sales. The movies are reaping a harvest. Automobile dealers report the largest sales in their history.

Steady work in the mills over the winter following the introduction of the shorter hours is one explanation given for increased expenditures. Another is that men who had enough laid by to buy motors before the change did not purchase them then because they had no time to take their families out. They preferred bed to automobiles and even to the movies. Now they are spending for pleasure.

The cut in the budget among the men with reduced earnings seems to have come in the item of clothes rather than in food or in recreation.

On the other hand, many men on eight hours are adding to their incomes with work outside the mills. The double shift in the mill is worked by some men for three days a week. One Negro family in the Pittsburgh district had four sons working the double shift. But this is not common. The men prefer a different type of work. They are writing insurance, becoming salesmen of automobiles and domestic household apparatus where the calls can readily be made at any hour of the day or evening. They pick up odd jobs, as gardeners especially. A Negro said he had so much more time to help his wife that they could now take boarders. Another man told of fitting up a workroom in his cellar where he was doing repair work.

Many families find considerable saving in the budget because of the help from the men about the home, whether in making gardens, in making and repairing the children's shoes, in making furniture or in more careful marketing.

This increased participation of men in the home life of the steel workers is marked where homes are available. The greatest curse of the steel towns today, however, is the lack of adequate housing, particularly for the new recruits. While this condition persists constructive social life cannot begin to take root.

The social results of the change to the shorter day cannot be measured in one year or in one generation. The social possibilities have not been sensed by the communities. In some cases civic organizations are unaware that the change in hours has taken place. As yet the men are just becoming conscious of life outside the mills. There is a noticeable change in their attitude toward the companies. The spirit is better. There is less tension in the towns. What this, combined with more free time for thinking and for action, may mean in the ultimate responsibility which the workers will assume for their own communities and their own living conditions is a question only beginning to show its potentialities.

When one considers that the eighty-four-hour week still exists in American steel mills, that thousands are still working twelve hours a day for six days a week and that the seven-day week continues with the coming of the eight-hour day in continuous processes, the program ahead for employers and for labor looms large—a program in which the public is still vitally interested.

But the outlook ahead for a constructive social program in the communities where the change has been made fairly opens up a new world to the social engineer. The question is "What will Jerry do with his leisure time?"

The elimination of the long day, complicated as that is by the stoppage of European immigration and the introduction of a new labor supply, has brought with it social problems as great or greater than the long day itself. It means a building program so vital that a revolution may be wrought in the lives of steel workers. It presents all the elements of the drama for the engineer in the technique of human relations as well as for the engineer in metals.

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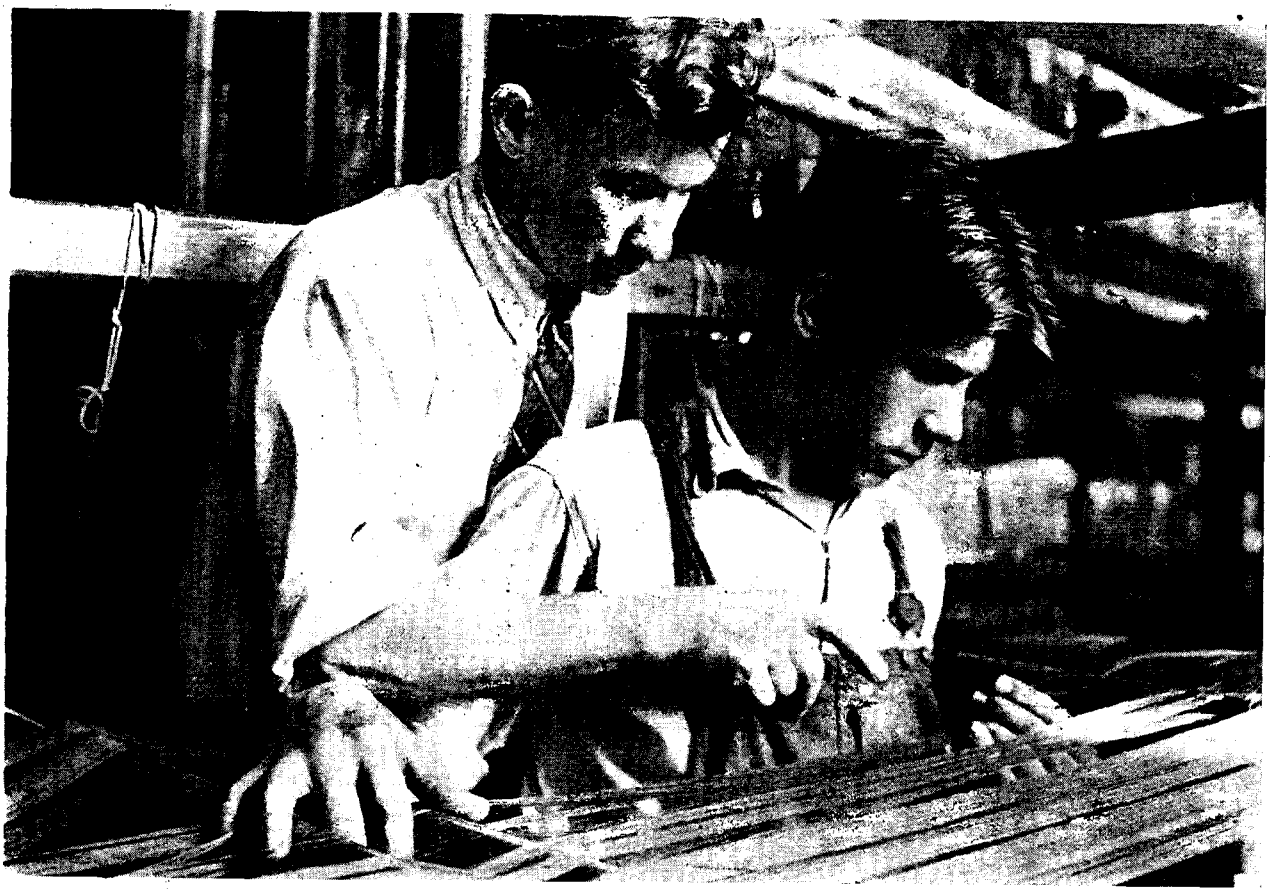


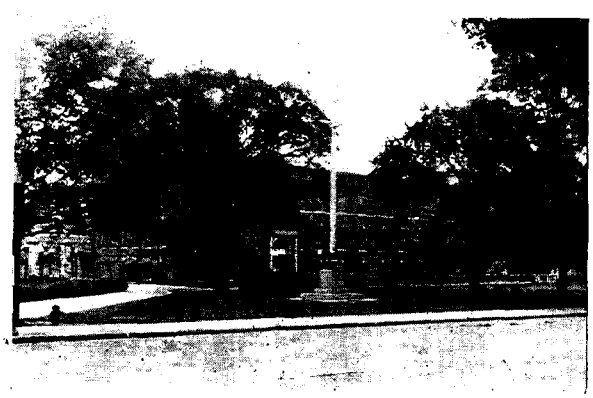
Photograph by courtesy of Cheney Bros.

The young helper learns his trade under the direction of a skilled instructor in the mill. Hand twisting requires hands smooth, slender and dry, and eyes that see perfectly, for the twister must handle aud manipulate individual threads of fine silk. Boys of seventeen or eighteen years are preferred to train for this work. After an average of six months' training and two years' experience, they rank as skilled workmen

Going to School in a Textile Mill

Work Studies by LEWIS W. HINE for the National Child Labor Committee

TRAINING for executive positions in the industry is the plan adopted in a New England textile mill which cooperates with the state trade school and the high school in the town where the mill is located. In two elective courses the students divide their time between the academic high school studies, technical classes in the school and shop work in the mill itself. For the time spent in shop work and in actual production work during the four years of high school the students are paid at the rate of twenty, twenty-five, thirty, and thirty-five cents per hour if they maintain an average mark of 70 in all subjects in their high school classes. An additional five cents per hour is paid honor students whose grade is 85 or higher in all subjects. The ambitious boy or girl is able in this way to earn part or all of his college tuition. Those who do not choose to go to college have a well-rounded knowledge of the manufacturing processes and are eligible for employment in the mill, which will ultimately lead to some executive capacity. The trade school, now a state institution, was founded by Cheney Brothers. The National Child Labor Committee feels that a decided step in the direction of better adjustment of young workers has been taken in the modern textile mills which set the minimum age limit for employment between fifteen and sixteen years and make possible the educational advantages which fit them for advancement in the industry they have chosen as a means of livelihood, though there is still room for improvement in the matter of promotion for employes.



The State Trade School is set in the heart of a small New England town

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Fifteen years ago conditions in some of the southern textile mills were far from admirable. Children too young to work were employed, the work rooms were not very healthful, and little attention, if any, was paid to the education or future advancement of young workers like this little spinner in a southern textile mill. Conditions have since been vastly improved

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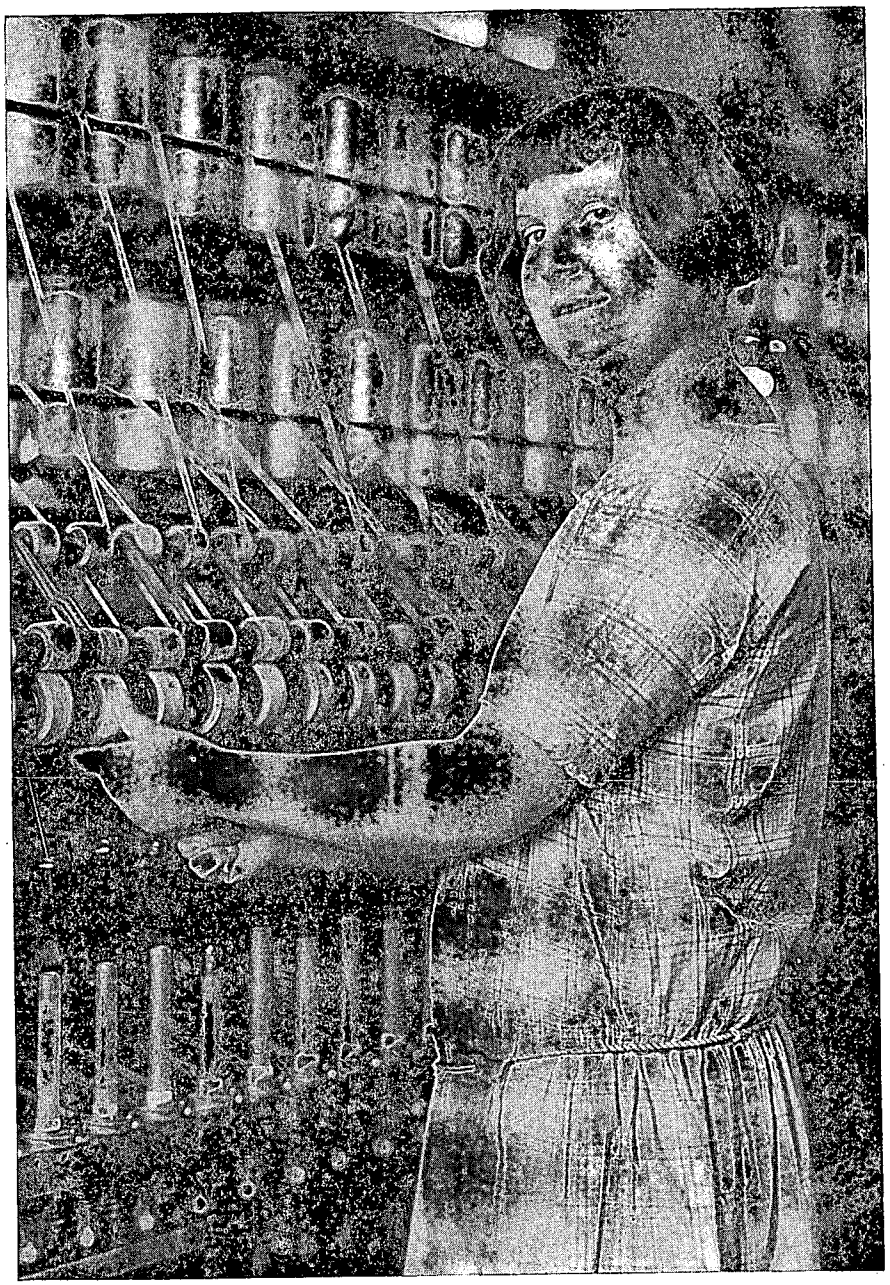

Photograph by courtesy of Cheney Bros.

Spinning Silk. Doffers and spinners are taught in the mill itself while some of the more complicated processes are taught in the trade school classes and in the high school. The instructor remains with the learner on the job until the latter has become proficient. The company believes that both the learner and the business are benefited by this arrangement

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Photograph by courtesy of Cheney Bros.

The inspector's job is all hand work and involves considerable responsibility—there is trouble all along the line if any foreign matter is left in the silk. Girls from sixteen to twenty-one years old are preferred as beginners in this work. They work on a special inspection bench with a light so placed that its rays shine through the glass under the silk, after having been reflected and diffused from a surface designed to eliminate glare. As in other operations where the silk thread or fibre is handled, slender, smooth, dry hands are important, and for the inspector, perfect sight is also essential.

Photograph from the State Trade School

Warping on the wheel warping machine is a complicated operation requiring skill and experience

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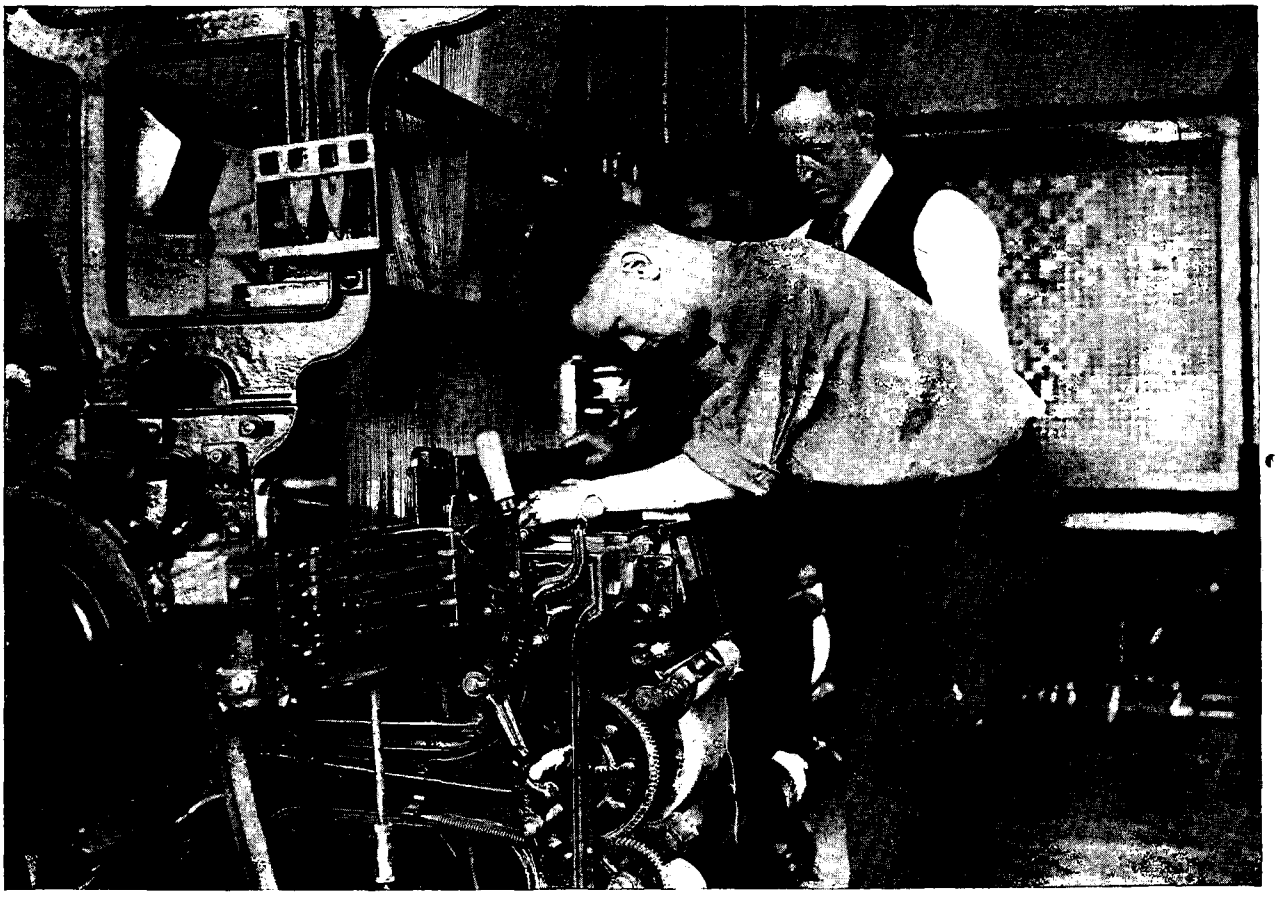
Photograph by courtesy of Cheney Bros.

Slender hands and manual dexterity are the chief requirements for a reeler. After two years in high school this girl has been working about one year. She is constantly attending to from one to six flies, each carrying threads from twelve spindles. She watches the whirling flies, ties broken threads, replaces empty bobbins with filled ones and ties the ends of the finished skeins. After putting an identification tag in one skein from each fly, she begins the round all over again



Photograph from the State Trade School

This boy is in the State Trade School, learning to weave figured silks, damasks and brocades on a Jacquard loom

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Six Children in Search of an Educator

By IRA S. WILE, M. D.

MASS education is slowly giving way to special types of classes more adequately adjusted to children differing widely in educational possibilities. School failure has not been due so much to the mental weaknesses of children as to the rigidity of school systems aiming to impress a single mould upon minds varying in depth, fibre, and plasticity.

The large number of school failures who achieved success in the world of science, art, industry and finance, indicates the necessity for scrutinizing the educational problems of every child in order to secure the more rational adaptation of educational facilities to general and special mental ability. A high degree of success has attended the organization of special classes for the blind, myopic, deaf, crippled, pre-tuberculous, and mentally defective children. It would appear as though discovered mental and physical disability gave children a particular school advantage. Is there an educational premium for abnormality? Smaller classes, better equipment, and a more highly trained teaching staff are available for children with known handicaps. These groups of children are social liabilities for whom communities appear moderately willing to make extra per capita expenditure to convert them into assets, or at least diminish their social hazard.

The pride of the teacher is the child who always knows the correct answer, but usually such a child has the wrong teacher. Supplemental studies or extensions of ordinary routine subjects afford a simple method of rounding out mental power and broadening the intellectual horizon, so that the child may actually come to realize that there will always remain much for her to learn. There is almost as great a hazard in the 100 per cent child as in the 100 per cent patriot. Neither is a completely socialized being, both may be community hazards unless properly educated.

The child with superior mental potentials, as evidenced in a high intelligence quotient, is entitled to have his mind supplied with adequate exercise, just as much as is the child of inferior mental power, handicapped sense, or impaired vitality. No prediction is possible as to the part that these mentally superior children may play in the guidance of their generation. It is probably true that they will provide a disproportionately large percentage of leaders in the arts and sciences, of the protagonists and champions of the new ideas and ideals that will be clamoring for a hearing then as now. In permitting these vigorous minds to remain idle, or to work at half speed, school progress is checked and mental growth is retarded.

The individualization of educational opportunities, direction, and methods is an ideal difficult to achieve, but is, nevertheless, of practical importance in determining the hygiene of mental development.

This is not to be construed as applying only to public schools for in proportion to their opportunities the private schools are far more backward than the public, particularly in larger cities. The private schools are bound by the traditions, conventions and educational heritage of the parents of their children, so that few such schools appear willing to assert their belief in modern educational methods to the extent of utilizing them fully. Fortunately, there are a number of outstanding private schools of an experimental nature, many of which are endowed or financed by interested groups of patrons who are unafraid to meet the requirements of this age and generation on a new basis.

Two Who Were Dull

MAVIS, fifteen years old, has a mental age, as indictated by tests, of but 10 11/12 years, with an intelligence quotient of 70. She is thus classified as a borderline type of deficient mentality.

Mavis has had every advantage that a home of culture, refinement and wealth could give her; tutors, governesses, dancing-teachers, riding-masters have given her all possible training. She shows the results of excellent breeding and thoughtful care: her obedience, modesty, patience and courtesy are in sharp contrast with her lack of imagination, resourcefulness, and acquired knowledge. She has marked difficulty in recalling facts the day after she is taught them. She fails to attain the speed or accuracy of muscular coordination expected of eight-year-old children. She is weak in reasoning power, associations, and the ability to form generalizations. Her power in reading is that usually found among nine-year-old children; she understands what she reads as well as would be expected in the fourth grade; her mastery of arithmetic is at approximately the same level. The paucity of her general information, likewise, suggests an intellectual grasp of formal subjects that is on a level with her mental age—more than four years behind her chronological age.

Mavis is undoubtedly a moron, but that diagnosis is not the end, but the beginning of her problem. What is to be done for her? Adequate resources and the protection of her family may spare her social failure. Should she be sent to an institution? Is it worth while to continue trying to teach her the formal subjects of the school curriculum? This poor little rich girl presents a problem like that of thousands of other less favored children.

Admittedly no training, medication, guidance or experience can restore her to normality. All the more reason, then, for her to receive the specialized education that will enable her to reach her maximum of achievement. She is a child to be made effective in every way possible by the wise expenditure of ample funds. In the interest of the race, she should not be allowed to marry, unless she is previously sterilized. But because she chances to enjoy the security of worldly goods there is no valid reason why she

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should be confined to a life of idle dependence. She is entitled to all the satisfactions that she can win by realizing such abilities as she has.

Allowing a limited amount of time for formal studies, Mavis may also have the benefit of music, dancing and such other esthetic experience as will provide a release for her energies while she is alone, or will serve to mask her limitations when she is "in company." Her potentials of usefulness in other directions have never been tested. She has never been allowed to try her hand at cooking, nor has she been taught to sew, or knit, or embroider. Money has given her everything purchasable—except real experience in living. Gardening might sharpen her enthusiasm and give her a new interest. Caring for domestic animals might enrich her life. If she were exposed to such educational opportunities her reaction might indicate where her interests and aptitudes lay, and show the way to an intelligent plan of vocational direction.

"ROSA is deficient in everything at school, but likes to sit and draw pictures of brides," her teacher reported, with a question as to the wholesomeness of Rosa's imagination. The girl was in the second term of the fifth grade, to which she had been promoted in spite of the fact that she had not assimilated the work required in the third grade. The efforts of her teacher there were as futile as those she had met in former years.

Rosa's chronological age was 11 8/12; her mental age, as indicated by tests, 8 4/12 years; her intelligence quotient 71. Her advancement through the regular grades at school was totally unjustified by her record. Her reading, arithmetic and spelling were of an inferior type; her mental age made her capable of coping with the beginnings of the third grade. In the fifth she was stranded far beyond her intellectual depths. There was no ungraded class in her school, and consequently no special attempt was made to grade her properly. In fact, just as her problem was being investigated, she was promoted to the sixth grade on the theory that she might be stimulated to greater effort by more difficult subject matter!

It was natural that Rosa's teacher, who was busy with a large class, was particularly interested in the three R's. She was not necessarily unsympathetic, but she believed that school time should not be wasted in idle drawings.

Yet this child was employing the school day to her fullest advantage by ignoring the babble about fractions. She was busy working out her own salvation without assistance. The pictures that she drew were not of brides, nor had they any sexual significance. She drew because she had a creative urge. Her busy pencil delineated Nell Brinkley heads, with long-lashed eyes, one very like another except for the arrangement of the hair. But her imagined ladies were dressed for the occasion—in simple frocks, opera gowns and capes, graduation dresses, riding habits, bridal finery. Her imagination devised new patterns and styles for many uses. Mentally Rosa was studying an art that had an economic and social value: she had definite power in costume designing and the ambition of her life was to become a dressmaker. Meanwhile, for what was her school work preparing her? To graduate, unlearned and untaught.

The situation was by no means simplified by the fact that Rosa's younger sister, of keener mind, was in the same grade. Rosa had accepted defeat and was already ignoring educational values entirely. Her basic age of six years indicated that her general level of age power was low, and her mental age suggested that it would be unwise to allow her to go on struggling with formal education on a basis which had been proved useless. She might have become a feeble-minded child—in the sense of social inadequacy—if the unwise pedagogic methods which controlled her school life had continued to do so. She is virtually a high grade moron.

But judgment as to Rosa's actual status should be postponed until she has had an opportunity for development on the basis of her inherent special ability. That is the paramount value to be seized on to save her from social wreckage. It seemed desirable to transfer her to a school where she could have the advantages of an ungraded class. There the curriculum outlined for her included drawing, needlework, the making of dress patterns, and the application of all these to her own creations. These studies were to be used as motives for reading and arithmetic, which she would need in reading pattern directions, making measurements, keeping accounts, and other sorts of work that might be needed by a dressmaker.

Rosa is quiet, pleasant, modest, retiring. She is far from aggressive: it is improbable that she will become a successful employing dressmaker. But with three or four years

MORONS form a distinct group of mental defectives, but within that group they vary not only in general intelligence, but in inherited trends, acquired traits, habits and conduct. They present the same variations as children of normal or superior cerebral endowment. They are "good" and "bad," indolent and industrious, attentive and easily distracted, truthful and untruthful, honest and dishonest, moral and immoral. In other words, they are human: they too are entitled to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. The task of educating them becomes more complicated by reason of their inherent mental limitations, not because of their conduct characteristics as a group.

Patently, this group which has a recognized intellectual handicap demands particular attention and supervision by the community. Yet institutional commitment should not be the first thought for a moron, but the last. He should not be taken into custody unless there is a special reason for doing so. Inadequate home supervision, viciousness, immorality, or even a complete lack of other facilities for proper training may be reasonable premises from which to draw the conclusion that the moron should be in custody of an institution for the feebleminded. Even then, however, the period of detention should be determined by the disposition, industrial capacity, character and conduct of the individual child. The moron is as trainable to good habits as to bad, and his ability to function safely in a community depends upon the formation of habits of honesty, sobriety, industry.

Whatever return society can get from the feebleminded must come from the development of their inherent mental power to its ultimate potentials. Whether the mental defective be black or white, rich or poor, his salvation lies in the training of his mind to some response that will enable it to function serviceably. The community neglects its responsibility toward the mental defective and to itself when it fails to provide this type of education.

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more in the elementary school, and some special training to develop her talent, she will undoubtedly become a valuable worker.

If as Rosa grows through adolescence her creative ability takes on a substantial quality, and her technic is adequate to present her ideas, she may be able to achieve a financial success far greater than that of her sister, who is more capable mentally, but lacks any outstanding talent. Her mental age at maturity may not be much above 11 years, but her social efficiency will be increased by her particular ability, so that she will be a useful member of society. Indeed if her special interests are stimulated Rosa may become freer of emotional stresses and thus be able to give fuller expression to the mental capacity which she has.

Two Who Were Brilliant

VERA is a fine type of American-born girl of well read Russian parents. She attends an excellent private school where she is in the fifth grade. There arises the question of her continuance at the school because of social attitudes and a tic of the eyes.

In years Vera is ten-and-a-half years old; mentally she is twelve years and eleven months and her intelligence quotient has fluctuated between 110 and 133. She has an excellent memory and learns quickly through visual presentation. Her reading quotient is 125. There is a weakness in history and geography. Her school achievement tests rated her at 11-9/12 years when her chronological age was ten years. She has a quick, vivid imagination and marked musical ability.

She entered school at the age of seven years and at eight and a half years was in the fifth grade. She has made no school progress in two years and there is doubt as to her promotion at the end of the present term. The irregularity of her intelligence quotient is emphasized by her failure to succeed in successive trials on the same tests, at six months intervals. There is psychic undependability which in Vera's case is an evidence of emotional instability. The median intelligence quotient of the class to which she belongs is said to be 120 so that there are times when she is considerably above or below this class level. This is important because it indicates the high standards of achievement that are expected in this child and also the intensive teaching which is possible.

Her ocular tic consists of rolling up the eyes so that at times she is hampered in her reading because her line of vision is lifted off of the printed page. This has given the school considerable concern. The school complains that she asks the teacher needless questions about things she should know and thus takes up a disproportionate amount of the teacher's time.

Vera has had everything made easy for her and she suffers from a high degree of dependence upon her mother. Her father is a musician of temperament, whose influence is limited to criticism of her musical expression. There is a constant home drive for progress in academic work and music, so that the child is under constant nervous push and pull. The home atmosphere is tense rather than tonic, and the satisfaction of parental hopes and desires is evidently of greater significance than the free development of the child.

As a matter of fact, Vera is now properly graded for her chronological age and her placement in this grade at eight and a half years represented two years acceleration, which was probably warranted by her mental age at the time. The pressure of a high class private school, the failure to secure promotion, a trial in the sixth grade with subsequent demotion, were sufficient forces to overcome the slight elements of poise that existed when she was accepted as a pupil of the school.

The simplest method for the school in meeting the situation was to lessen its responsibility for Vera by asking for her withdrawal. In the very middle of the term this is a serious matter; nevertheless the teacher felt that the eye-rolling habit had a serious import and might lead other children to unpleasant imitation. When the nature of the emotional distress was explained, the school was willing to retain her as a pupil. Her class work improved when knowledge of this intention reached the child.

The tic was part of a general tendency to poor muscular coordination and responded to simple suggestions and muscular re-education of a rather general type. It was part of the instability which also characterized her mental processes. Tears flowed at the thwarting of her desires or at any slight provocation.

Vera was a truly typical neurotic child upon whom educational pressure at home and at school weighed heavily. Her early school advancement had been as great an error as her non-promotion after her acceleration.

The pushing of children in school work is illustrated thus, not in terms of advancement beyond the mental potentials but beyond the physical nervous resistance of the child. The hyperconscientious youngster who takes school work too

REGARDLESS of superior intelligence, caution is essential as a form of mental hygiene. Mental tests cannot be relied upon to indicate the underlying nervous stratification of mental function. Any exhibition of nervous phenomena is a danger signal not to be ignored. It is insufficient to use the word "nervousness" as an explanation of children's unsatisfactory conduct, nor is it scientific to rest content with informing parents that a defect is "trivial," or that "the child will outgrow it" (usually, it may be remarked, within the mystic number of seven years.)

Many of the conditions regarded as "only nervousness" originate in physical, emotional, or volitional disturbances. It is well to bear in mind the relation to cerebral function of such conditions as stuttering, tics, restlessness, easy fatigueability, peevishness, bashfulness, fears, hypersuggestibility, vacillation, hysterical laughter, chronic headaches, irregular attacks of digestive disturbances, explosiveness, sulkiness, moroseness, stubbornness, hyperirritability, indolence, day dreaming, and similar evidences of personality impairment. These are all conditions which are fairly common and present difficulties which are not surmounted by fixing upon nervousness as the cause. Why do children evidence these traits, how may they be corrected, and—of much greater value—how may they be obviated? These represent some of the questions for which mental hygiene may supply the answer, but not without the assistance and the cooperation of the teaching profession.

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greatly to heart and tends to worry over the slightest failure or slackening of progress in individual branches is in peril of an explosion that temporarily disrupts mental harmony.

HELEN requires educational adjustment. She is in years only eight years and nine months old; mentally she has the maturity of fifteen years and two months, an intelligence quotient of 173. It is evident that we have here an unusual child, different from the average girl of eight or nine years of age. The question of her educability raises no question, but there is a serious problem in the how and where to secure a proper education. She is individualistic, but friendly, aggressive, independent, and possessing dominant elements of capable leadership. She shows unbounded enthusiasm with a tendency to marked irritability when she is not fully occupied.

Helen is in the fourth grade of school and thus one year accelerated for her chronological age. Her theoretical placement on the basis of her mental age would be in the first, or possibly, the second year of high school. She is restless in school, works slowly but accurately, and is not essentially interested in her studies or in the children with whom she is placed. Her cerebral endowment is of the highest type, rather fancifully termed "near genius," with an especial richness in her reasoning power and in her auditory and visual memory. These are the elements of greatest consequence in acquiring formal education, and it follows that her learning ability is rapid through auditory and visual channels. With her reasoning ability there is remarkable associative capability fully up to secondary school standards. She evidences prompt and accurate generalization, a high degree of planfulness, and a reasoning power that approximates that of average adults. Helen's is a highly developed mentality trying to function through the channels ordinarily satisfactory for nine-year-old children of average or slightly superior ability.

What school benefit is accruing to this child? Though rated as a year accelerated in grading, Helen is actually a retarded pupil in the light of her exceptional latent ability and actual achievements Her teachers do not believe in "pushing," so they are holding her back. She should not be "pushed" because of her emotional excitability, but she cannot be pulled back without increasing it, through a lack of intellectual and organic occupation. The school cannot reduce her intellectual power, even though it deny it exercise. Despite all formal schooling she has attained a reading and spelling ability commensurate with her mental age.

What has fourth grade material to offer in training this child, who is fascinated by Van Loon's joyous history, and able to grasp and recall its content? How much value does fourth grade arithmetic yield her, when she is already able to cope with the problems of the sixth grade of school? Opportunity classes, special promotions, or the skipping of grades would scarcely solve her problems. Her quickness of perception, rapidity of association, and certainty of retentiveness, together with a keen inductive and deductive reasoning give her the same advantage in acquiring formal education as is possessed by the musical prodigy in mastering an instrument.

The type of education that would give a larger content each year, would enrich her mind, develop her powers, increase her resources, and broaden her outlook on life, without increasing her speed in travelling through the elementary school, would be ideal. By nature, Helen was fitted for an ungraded class that would afford a fairly individualized program. Without great expenditure of energy, she could complete all the instruction afforded by an elementary school within two years, though such advance is unnecessary and undesirable because of the importance of her social experience.

For children of this type there must come the opportunity to function up to the limit of their unusual capacities. It is wasteful to try to instruct in material that has been learned. Repetition is deadly, enervating and discouraging. Handwork, art, music, dancing, domestic science, nature study, research in natural sciences, anthropology, social science, special reading and reporting on phases of history, foreign languages, and the practical problems in the school and the community will serve to enrich the curriculum in a school that endeavors to cultivate thinking, reasoning, judging, and practical doing. Helen's social attitudes are to be altered, or fixed, only by living in a world of effort that supplies her with the pabulum she craves and is able to digest.

Two with Hidden Handicaps

ELLIS is a friendly, adolescent boy of twelve years and five months, in the fifth grade, who has difficulty in reading. In general mental ability average power is suggested, (mental age thirteen and two months), though it is apparent that there is some special ability that gives him capacity to perform two tests at the sixteenth year and one test at the eighteenth year levels. His intelligence quotient is 106.

Tests of memory show excellent ability in the field of general information, good recognition for large objects, and a particularly strong power of memorization through aural presentation. His logical memory of visually presented material is good, although he takes about three times the average length of time for reading. His logical memory with auditory memory presentation is above the average. His ability to control mental association is prompt, vigorous and accurate, within the limits of his knowledge, but there is difficulty in reducing his associations to writing. His ability to recognize forms is hampered by an inability to recognize the right side of drawings. His power to control movements of writing and drawing is similarly handicapped where progression to the right is involved.

His spelling is of eighth grade standard, but his writing is cramped, tense, and distinctly retarded because of difficulty in following the line. The speed rate of writing is diminished below the standards of children in the first grade of school. Ellis is unable to grasp concrete situations that require the comparison of articles, figures or pictures that cannot be seen directly in front of him. His central vision is active and accurate. Silent reading progresses slowly, but there is no lack of ability if adequate time is given to the reading itself. Comprehension in silent reading is fully of the ninth grade average, while his speed in reading is about one-third of the average rate, that is, whether reading in columns or across the page, the rate is about twenty-eight words a minute—the longer a word, the slower the

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THERE are today in all large school systems pupils who are deprived of their fullest advantage in education, because of a lack of special facilities for ascertaining the reasons for their incompetence. The psycho-educational clinic, and the cooperation of physicians, psychologists, and teachers provides one means of improving the chances of children to realize their potentials. Teachers' estimates are valuable, and routine group psychological tests are helpful for coarse classifications and grading. Neither one nor both of them is adequate for the wisest and safest adjustment of all children. The physical basis of educability demands consideration in determining what the child should do in school, and what the school should not do to the child.

speed. Reading words backwards and to the left, in a mirror, considering the difficulties in transposing letters, is almost as rapid as his reading to the right. Tests indicate that he is able to recognize words of four letters quickly, but the delay in reading words of six, eight, or more letters, which require a readjustment of his ocular muscles, indicates a limitation of the field of vision to the right.

From psychological examination it is apparent that there is no disorder of the higher mental processes but an interference with visual function due to interference with the retinal fields at the nasal half of the left eye and the temporal half of the right eye. For purposes of locating the disturbance the oculist was requested to test out the visual fields, the muscular balance, and the number of ocular movements required to read ordinary lines of print.

It required nine separate movements of the eye to the right to read a line of eight words which should have been perceived in two or three motions. The boy's chief complaint is due to this visual defect, caused originally by a fracture of the skull. The presence of the lesion eighteen months after the injury makes the prospect of recovery of vision in the blind halves very poor. The question of progression of the condition cannot be decided until the eyes are re-examined for comparison after a month or two. For purposes of instruction Ellis must depend upon his ears rather than on his eyes; and the strength of his auditory memory indicates that compensatory development of this faculty has already begun. As book work increases in the higher grades of school, it is patent that his shortened eye span demands special relief. This can be accomplished by having his long lessons read to him. His unusually excellent auditory memory will be further strengthened as he becomes more dependent upon it. In addition he will learn more rapidly and with less nervous strain if an intelligent reader is at his command during the period of study at home. For the purpose of relieving the handicap in writing the typewriter affords a simple remedy. The learning of the touch system has given speed without eye-strain for his written work and has enabled him to regain confidence in his own capacity to master the curriculum.

All of these suggestions were accepted but they could not suffice for a complete educational adjustment. It became necessary to find a school that was willing to treat Ellis as an individual. His rate of reading demanded that he be excused from oral performance; his slowness in writing and calculating required that he be marked upon what he actually accomplished in assigned tasks. Fortunately, an understanding principal was willing to make the necessary adjustments and his school progress has justified all the adaptations that were made.

In another two years, evidence of his development has been satisfactory. He is performing successfully the school work of the ninth grade. No extra or individual assistance is required of his teacher. Whatever instruction and explanation suffice for the class group is adequate for Ellis.

Special attention must be given to his shortcomings in the mechanics of reading, otherwise Ellis will be dependent upon a reader for life. As his eyes cannot be altered, the method of reading must be studied. A language that is read to the left, as Arabic or Hebrew, would yield him a facility now denied. The acquisition of these languages would be slow but the gain in reading would be worthy even of this great effort as a last resource rather than to be deprived of the vital contact with current affairs, as well as with literature. To learn to read with his fingers one of the raised systems utilized by the blind appeared unwise, not merely because of the insufficiency of the books required for his further education and the lack of the usual daily papers, but because it would give him a false idea concerning his vision and imperil his attitude toward life in many ways.

A solution slowly suggested itself. It was decided to reverse the printed page by teaching Ellis to read ordinary print in a mirror held or fixed in front of the page he wished to read. This immediately made reading to the left possible, but required a relearning of the alphabet in reversed form, and reeducation in recognizing word forms in their reversed form. One-half hour daily was devoted to the reading aloud of many kinds of printed material of varying difficulty. Within two weeks his rate of reading reversed English to the left was more than half as rapid as his reading the same sort of printed material in its normal form and to the right. In time he will be as capable a reader as other boys in his school or college. Furthermore, he will achieve an independence of outside assistance in the learning process that will enable him to advance with full confidence in his vision and in his ability to compete with full-sighted people.

Ellis' education was based upon his needs in terms of his discovered permanent defect. Admittedly this is an unusual education handicap, but it suffices to indicate the importance of a thorough study of the unusual child whose schooling is endangered by unusual handicaps.

ROBERT is an American boy, seven years and eight months of age, mentally two months older, with an intelligence quotient of 102, which indicates a normal general endowment of average type. Robert is alleged to be lacking in concentration and persistence and to have especial difficulty in reading. He has been at school for one and one-half years.

He shows strength in vocabulary, rhyming, general information, and reasoning, with a superior auditory memory for immediate and remote events. His verbal associations are of rapid type and evidence a considerable extent of mental content.

His visual memory is definitely weak in some directions, particularly in relation to symbols, words, and figures, though slightly better with numbers. He is unable to read,

(*Continued on page* 598)

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Students Who Pay Back

By W. E. HARMON

"We consider the carefully selected student a sound financial risk for loans made on an easy installment repayment basis in accordance with our plan," says Mr. Harmon, a New York capitalist, who is carrying on through the Harmon Foundation two significant experiments in good works on a business basis. One, loaning money to students, is discussed here. The other applies similar principles of self-help to the financing of community playgrounds.

"THE proof of the pudding is in the eating." The spirit of the old proverb applies most aptly to the experiment of the Harmon Foundation in making student loans on business terms.

"Is your system working out? Are the borrowers paying back? Do selected student loans prove to be as reliable as you had hoped, on a character basis for credit unsecured by commercial collateral? Do they meet their installment payments?" These questions are being asked now that the time for the first payments has passed. The answer to all of them is emphatically "Yes."

In dealing with several hundred widely scattered individual students we have made many interesting observations as to their undeveloped attitude toward business transactions. In some instances the requirements of the student loan administration have been adjusted to meet these needs. Fundamentally, however, we consider the carefully selected student a sound financial risk for loans made on an easy installment repayment basis in accordance with our plan.

For more than thirty years during my business career I have made a practice of lending to college students, in some cases advancing as much as $1,400 to one student. Increasingly the importance of repayment as a discipline in developing character has been impressed upon me. It was emphasized in the heart-felt thanks in after years of several of my early borrowers whom I had forced to pay their loans. I had used business methods and all had come through. In 1904, I loaned a young man a little more than $700. Through this, together with his earnings and a little money he already had, he was enabled to secure his degree in one of the mid-western universities. He paid his monthly installments with the utmost promptness, and often made the remark that while he assumed that I took pleasure in lending him the money, and he certainly had great satisfaction in securing it, yet he believed that his joy in paying the debt exceeded either his previous experience or mine.

In accordance with my promise at the time the loan was made, I gave him the privilege of selecting his successor, to whom the same sum of money was loaned. This second young man graduated in due course of time, and began the repayment of his debt in a manner entirely satisfactory. But when the obligation was about half liquidated, he married and stopped making payments. I allowed the matter to go on for some time, and then, just before establishing the Student Loan Division of the Harmon Foundation, made up my mind that if I were to go into this work with a clean record, I must collect this overdue debt. Repeated letters brought no response. Finally we took action. On or about the same day a letter was received by him from the dean of his college, the head of his fraternity, his previous sponsor—who incidentally wrote that if he did not pay his debt, he would take the amount out of his hide—and an attorney. Within three days the full bill was paid, and with payment the young man sent a letter of thanks for being compelled to do the thing which had troubled his conscience for years, but which his will had not been sufficiently strong to accomplish without outside assistance.

I have frequently stated that prior to the establishment of the Division of Student Loans, I had never lost a dollar through loans to students. This is not quite true. I once advanced $2,000 for loans to students in a southern college at the intervention of the president. At this time I was not paying very much attention to the details of student loans, owing to the pressure of business activity. Two or three years passed. Glowing accounts came of the manner in which the students had repaid their debts. One story was of two students who walked one hundred miles barefoot to get the benefit of the loan fund. The reports I received from time to time were that not a student was

THE HARMON FOUNDATION SERVICE 1921

"TWO years ago," says Mr. Harmon, "the division of student loans embarked on a five year cruise in an adventure of faith. The course was laid toward the harbor of finance as related to higher education. Ports of call are the colleges which have become affiliated in the plan. The cargo consists of one variety of freight only, Financing Education a New Way—Applying Business Principles to Student Loans. New and specially constructed machinery and equipment were provided for this voyage. Watchful deck hands are alert to adjust the mechanism wherever trial and experience prove necessary. The careful selection of risks through the college student loan committees by means of a detailed statement of past and an estimate of future expenses is the motor power of this ship. A wide choice of schools, the interest rate and group responsibility against loss, through premium, are the life-saving devices, while the repayment and follow-up measures are the steering gear and propeller."

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delinquent. One fine day, however, the president of the college left suddenly for foreign parts, taking with him all money and all records of the transactions, fictional or actual, with students. I hardly think this would constitute a reflection against the plan, although it certainly did against my knowledge of human nature.

The result of my experience, together with a fixed belief that at least a portion of the burden of paying for his education, should be borne when necessary by the person educated, led to the organization of our student loan division. After two years of preliminary work, we are convinced not only that students will meet their obligations but that the majority prefer to finance their way independent of charity. The difficulty is to find a source of loans which will meet their condition—lack of collateral and need for long time credit. About 75 per cent of the applicants state that their friends are not in a position to help, that they have no friends to whom to go, or that they would rather not ask where the element of favor would enter in. "So far I have obtained my assistance from an uncle," writes one student. "His money is now tied up so that I cannot obtain funds from that source." Another earnest student, one of a large family where the mother is no longer living, a boy who has steadily worked his way through Berea, writes:

> I was raised in a poor community where most of the people who knew me were poor. For seven years and a half I worked my way through school and college because I had to do so if I wanted the training. So much necessary manual labor made it impossible to do the class work I wished. My loan this year made it possible to put more time on my studies. I did my best grade of work and found it a pleasure. As I think of the happy years in school—some of them very hard years, but happy ones—I think of many boys and girls who have had to work so long and steadily that they could not do satisfactory school work, either leaving for need of funds or, becoming discouraged, dropped out never to return. These could have stayed in school and prepared themselves for greater services if there had been someone to offer them assistance in the form of a loan. This makes me wish that you could extend the field of your aid to include worthy students of all grades, because the service you are rendering is unique in its character and develops in the student a wonderful sense of responsibility in moral obligations because in your system he is made to feel so definitely that his actions affect others.

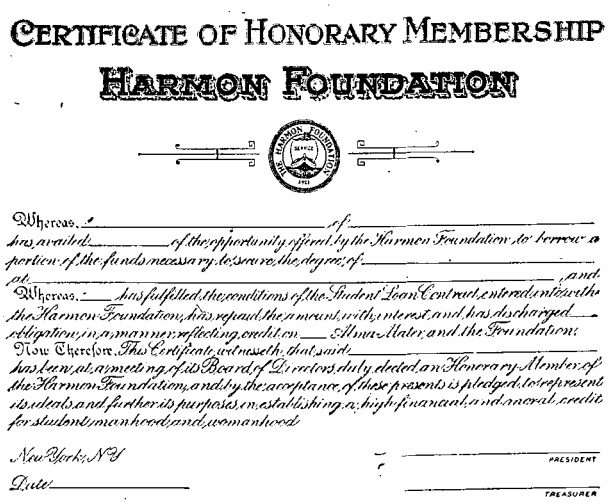
This is the type of student in whose cause the Harmon Foundation has raised its standard of service—the seriously thinking man or woman who wants college training, recognizes its positive value and is willing to work for it. We seek to help the marginal student whose work will be stopped or hindered without additional help. During the first two years of its existence the Division of Student Loans has granted appropriations to 44 colleges and universities throughout the country. Four hundred and sixty-nine separate loans have been made, aggregating a total of $76,380, the average loan being for $163. The agreement with each student provides that payment of the amount of contract is to begin one year after graduation at the rate of $10 a month.

One of the outstanding features of the loan system is the provision for installment repayment, so that no student needing money to complete his college work will be deterred from borrowing for fear of loading himself with a heavy burden in liquidating the loan after completing his course. Although 167 students were included in the group for the school year 1922-23 only 96 were seniors, whose first installments were thus due July 1, 1924. Nineteen students, however, 11 of them women, had repaid their loans in full before this date. Almost without exception in making payment these students have expressed a desire to do their part to forward the plan by showing that students will meet their financial obligations based on their honor.

While the foundation sincerely appreciates the effort these nineteen have made to do even more than their share in advancing the loan plan, it is only fair to emphasize the fact that many of the additional 68 men and women who met their installment payments on the due date had paid much more than the required amount. The sum of $15,280 was loaned to these 96 students. Eighty-seven paid in $4,680, or 30 per cent of the total amount borrowed. Seven applied for an extension of time as provided for in the rules and regulations. Two were definitely delinquent, but reported by the first of August after they had been followed up with communications emphasizing sharply the strict business nature of their obligation. The fact that they had had a full year in which to prepare for this first payment was stated, and their attention was directed to a regular custom of importance in establishing credit; that when a note is due on the first of the month, it is overdue on the second; that although three days grace is allowed by law, the practice is resented by financial institutions; that most people desiring to establish or maintain good credit relationship arrange to have their checks reach the bank sufficiently ahead of the due date in order that the same may be collected without loss of interest; that while the individual amount involved in these cases is negligible, the foundation regards the principle of promptness as a very definite part of its system.

Of the six students who had not reported promptly on July 1 it is interesting to note that four had prepared for the ministry, one medicine, and one dentistry. The outstanding feature in all these instances has been, not that the student was wilfully delinquent, but that he was negligent and oblivious to the binding business nature of his contract, and had an inadequate conception of the importance of this test of character. Many of our borrowers have taken occasion from time to time to thank us for handling them and their loans on a strict basis.

(*Continued on page* 601)



CERTIFICATE OF HONORARY MEMBERSHIP

HARMON FOUNDATION

Whereas, _____ of _____ has availed _____ of the opportunity offered by the Harmon Foundation to borrow a portion of the funds necessary to secure the degree of _____ at _____; and

Whereas, _____ has fulfilled the conditions of the Student Loan Contract entered into with the Harmon Foundation, has repaid the amount, with interest, and has discharged _____ obligation in a manner reflecting credit on _____ Alma Mater and the Foundation:

Now Therefore This Certificate witnesseth that said _____ has been, at a meeting of its Board of Directors duly elected an Honorary Member of the Harmon Foundation, and by the acceptance of these presents is pledged to represent its ideals and further its purposes in establishing a high financial and moral credit for students in manhood and womanhood.

New York, N.Y.

Date _____

_____ PRESIDENT

_____ TREASURER

"Substantial evidence of good character" in the opinion of New York bankers—the certificate given student borrowers whose obligations have been creditably discharged

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Next Steps for the Country Church

By EDMUND de S. BRUNNER

TO the country church is given the task of putting spiritual meaning into the life of the American farmer. This means readjustment, for the spirit of this age is changing. The rural tradition of Protestantism, at least, is drawn from its service to the pioneer of a century ago, the man who brought forth the civilization of our middle west—a man of solitary and intense life, for whom an individualistic gospel was preached. Parishes were laid out on the basis of the distance he could conveniently drive to service and return before his chores called him.

Today conditions are different. Smaller farms, more intensively cultivated, have decreased isolation. Improved roads and the automobile have annihilated distance. The mechanical revolution and the college of agriculture have transformed farming. Brain and machines now do the work once performed by straining human backs. Fewer people are needed for more production. Rural needs have given us a type of community unknown in the world before—the agricultural village, service station to the farmer. Paralleling the industrial has come a social revolution. Cooperative buying and selling are overcoming rural individualism. The consolidated high school has replaced the one-room red building of old oaken-bucket days. Everywhere in rural America horizons are enlarged and enlarging.

What of the church? There are 101,000 American town and country churches. If all of them were put into a hopper and then like oranges in a packing house assorted according to size, the most numerous group would be those churches with one or two rooms, supported by a slowly declining number of active members (never more than fifty), served by a non-resident minister, having but two organizations, an ungraded Sunday school and a Ladies' Aid, and competing for new members with several other churches, some of which would be aided in the struggle by "home mission" grants, as Fred Eastman showed in the June, 1924, Survey Graphic.

To visualize the situation, consider the results of a small segment of a study still in process by the Institute of Social and Religious Research. Recently it selected about 100 small agricultural villages, all having a population lying within the same restricted limits and averaging about 500, with few or no foreign-born. Certain aspects of the church situation were studied. It was found that the churches in competitive points were largely served by resident pastors trained in college and seminary, and that they were subsidized by "home mission" funds. The churches in the places where each denomination had undisputed possession of the field were served by non-resident men, and largely by men untrained and poorly paid. In view of the fact that the denominations themselves, in nominating their most successful churches for the Institute of Social and Religious Research to study, selected largely those that were the only ones in their communities, this situation holds added interest. By a tremendous extra investment in years of costly training, funds and time, the not too greatly overchurched community makes a slightly better record in its material support of religion than the neglected village whose non-competitive situation requires less attention from denominational supervisors.

As long as denominations cling as tenaciously to their own organizational glory as democratic presidential candidates cling to the votes of instructed delegates, there can be no real progress. The blame for this familiar situation, however, rests more largely on the state, district, and other less-than-national administrative officers than on the big national agencies, guilty as they often are. The fear of reporting fewer churches to the man higher up rather than the fear of the Lord constrains too many.

But there are signs of improvement. The Home Missions Council is organizing its constituent bodies for an advance upon unchurched communities and for the development of the work in one-church communities. It has called a conference of the budgeting committees of the national boards to give serious consideration to what this will involve. Better than this, it has called upon its members to place the cooperative ideals of the national boards before the state and district officers. It is beginning the attack upon the middleman in religion. Symptomatic of the better day is this recent remark by one national executive: "This year we have employed three new state secretaries. I have told each one that unless he reports a smaller number of churches in a few years than he now has I shall consider his work a failure."

Still better is the advance made by the country church movement, as revealed by the Institute of Social and Religious Research in its intensive study of forty successful churches to which allusion has already been made. These forty churches, chosen from 700 nominated, were selected with due regard to geographical and denominational distribution. Various typical economic backgrounds were also sought. A new picture of the town and country church is given by this study. The time-honored circuit rider has been succeeded by the resident minister with a comfortable modern parsonage. In seven cases

In Survey Graphic for June 1924 the Rev. Fred Eastman exposed the tragic misapplication of money and energy which results when denominational subsidies are used to sustain ineffective churches in overchurched villages and pointed out a remedy for it. Here, at Mr. Eastman's suggestion, the author of Tested Methods in Town and Country Churches, and Churches of Distinction in Town and Country, sketches the way to surer and finer service by the rural church—a road which many country congregations under clear-sighted leadership are already finding.

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out of eight, space is provided somewhere in the church plant for social and recreational purposes, and in two-thirds of the cases there is recreational equipment. Separate classrooms for classes in religious education are the rule, not the exception. The moving-picture machine or stereopticon is found in a majority of instances. One-half of the church schools insist on training their teachers instead of trusting to their good will and old-fashioned Sunday school quarterly. Evangelism there is, but of the variety that undergirds the emotional appeal with definite instruction in Christian faith and practice. There are well developed beginnings in week-day religious school work and in daily vacation Bible schools. Finances are on a "pay as you go" instead of on a "trust in the Lord and annual oyster supper" basis. Nine out of ten ministers are paid a living wage. These churches are democratic, most of them serving all occupational classes and such racial groups as do not have their own churches. Without exception they are found to include definite community service as a part of their program and to cooperate freely with other churches, if there are any, in their communities.

The study showed, too, that this program appealed to the people. Net growth in membership in these churches was four hundred per cent over the national average. Per capita contributions were higher by one quarter; and, most significant of all, the time investment, which by and large through the country is about two hours a month for each member in these churches, ranged from five to twelve hours.

The rural church has found a way of leadership. These churches, achieving success under diverse but not exceptional conditions, prove it.

What then are a few of the next steps in country church advance?

1. *More training for rural ministers.* Already this is under way. The word "rural" has appeared in the catalogues of some theological seminaries. Social workers, to serve best, have had to learn to think and talk the language of the people. So too, country ministers must have the language of rural sociology and agricultural economics, not that they may teach them but that they may sense the spiritual implications of the struggles of their people and lend a helping hand where they can. Perhaps the possibilities of this special training are best exemplified in the three-week summer schools of graduate training for rural ministers. The number of these is increasing. Some are interdenominational. The mornings are spent in consideration of the present-day problems of American rural life and the part of the church in their solution. Afternoons are devoted to recreations of the sort that can be applied in the rural community.

2. *The old Sunday school must be completely reorganized.* Its objectives must be determined. Is it to teach the Bible or to build character or both? The new rural church school is but a very distant relative of the old. In one of the churches studied each class has a separate room equipped according to the age of the pupils. For the primary children, chairs are small, pictures and blackboards low, and a sand-table stands in one corner. The adolescent girls enjoy a den, furnished simply but with good taste. Lesson subject and content are suited especially to each of the classes. In some grades the Bible study is carried on in such a way that the students can receive credit at the high school. A moving picture machine stands ready to make the parable of The Good Samaritan live or to visualize for American children scenes familiar to the foreign missionary. Gatherings of teachers in this school, as in many others, are real faculty meetings.

3. *The church must have a program of work in the community that is fitted to the needs of the people.*

Collbran, Colorado, illustrates the proper application of this principle. For years there had been some half-dying churches in the valley of which this little village is the capital. When one church assumed the total ministry the people responded loyally. A community house was erected. There are athletics, hiking, socials for the adolescents. The young people have these things too, and enjoy dramatics as well. The church furnishes the moving pictures. The various organizations use the community building which houses the library also. There the good-roads meeting was held for which the church procured a movie showing good roads in the making. Improved highways resulted. During the height of the season, the church operates an employment bureau. It cooperates with the work of the nurse and with the school. Moreover, its influence extends throughout the valley. Instead of scattered local efforts, there is a man on the staff of the church at the center whose sole duty is extension work. He reaches all the neighborhoods of the valley with human sympathy. To them he carries religious and social service, including movies and library books. He holds services in school houses, conducts socials and classes and brings as much of the program of the church at the center to the outlying neighborhoods as is possible with the aid of a hard worked automobile. It is the old circuit-rider system brought down to date.

This is typical of the service which many a country church is rendering today. It is fitted to local need. For instance, a Methodist church in the Ozarks, by a survey, revealed the assets of the community to itself, showed also the possibilities of crop diversification, and saved the day for a section which was utterly discouraged through the failure of its main crop.

Stepping stones to better service at Post Falls, Idaho

4. *The new program calls for new buildings.* The typical one- or two-room structure is the relic of the days that are going. That building illustrated society's conception of the church. It was a preaching organization. The new country church building fits a new conception and is providing for three functions—worship, religious education and com-

(*Continued on page* 601)

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EDITORIALS

IN its Industrial Review of the Year, 1923-1924, published on August 2, the Information Service of the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America ventured an interpretation of the recent political activities of American labor. Its observations are restrained and well within the facts of common knowledge. It echoes a large section of the labor press in saying that recent developments have opened a new chapter in the political history of the American labor movement. It bases this statement upon the fact that the Conference for Progressive Political Action, which owes its existence principally to such powerful labor unions as the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, and the International Association of Machinists, and which on July 5, in Cleveland, endorsed the platform and independent candidacy of Senator La Follette, "has succeeded in bringing together some of the strongest units of the labor movement" for independent political action.

In view of the further and pertinent fact that all parties to the Cleveland conference, including a number of unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, pledged themselves to consider the formation of a new party after the November election, it makes bold to observe that "the indications are that if the movement develops coherence and integrity a party somewhat similar to the British Labor Party will be formed with the Socialist Party undertaking to play the same part in it that the Independent Labor Party —the party of Ramsay MacDonald—plays in the British labor movement."

FOR this seemingly innocent statement, the Federal Council of Churches has been vehemently attacked by the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor. For this it is charged with attempted "dictation over policies and actions of the labor movement"; with "a wholly unwarranted and presumptuous attempt to promote the waning fortunes of Socialism in America and to create for the church organization a political leadership over labor—on the part of a movement which should and must be content with spiritual leadership and with cooperation where service can be rendered in advancing the interests of the masses of the people."

Here is certainly amazing language, such as Americans have not been accustomed to take seriously since the days when George III had his vice-regents in the colonies. It is not only without warrant in fact as applied to the Federal Council of Churches, but is perplexingly out of harmony with the essentially democratic temper of the American labor movement, for which the American Federation of Labor speaks with vested authority.

THE incident has more than a passing news interest for social workers whether within or outside the church organizations. "Charity" is a child of the church. From the beginning the main preoccupation of disinterested disciples of Jesus, with their basic doctrine of the brotherhood of men, has been with the oppressed, and with them the oppressed have always been synonymous with those that labor and are heavy laden. The ministrations of early charity were to the "laboring classes" and were accepted as due from the fortunate to the deserving poor. The surveys and investigations of organized philanthropy never exploited the fields of prosperity; they, too, aimed at improving the condition of the working classes. But their frequent emphasis upon such impersonal economic and industrial factors as wages, rents, standards of living and the like, accompanied by appeals for those "who are out of work through no fault of their own," reflects a change in the social and economic position of the propertyless wage-working group. The recent engineering and professional drift of social work again reflects the change in the status and social prestige of the group that has traditionally furnished the objects of charity and philanthropic benevolence.

An examination of the historical evolution of social work shows that the changing status of labor and the increasing measure of conscious influence which organized labor has come to exert on all phases of community life, have profoundly modified both the conditioning environment of social work and also its technique and objectives. The process by which "charity" became "organized philanthropy" and this in turn developed into "scientific social work" with its professional engineering implications, runs closely parallel with the process by which individual bargaining between "master and servant" became "collective bargaining" between owners of labor power and owners of machines, and this in turn expanded to take in the idea of "workers' control" with its implication that labor as a coequal estate of the realm has a right to a voice in the control not only of its hours and wages and working conditions, but also property—the machinery of production—itself. The psychological and economic environment of social work has changed with the changing status of labor and has been clearly responsive to it.

Organized labor, as protagonist and spokesman of the wage-workers, repudiates the traditional connotation of

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charity. It asserts Labor's self-sufficiency to care for itself. It will recognize the social worker only as "spiritual" leader or as a technical specialist when he is prepared to cooperate with Labor "where service can be rendered in advancing the interests of the masses of the people." Its long struggle to throw off the invidious distinction implicit in the traditional conception of "charity" has bred in it a jealous sensitiveness toward all such expressions of interest in its policies and activities, especially when emanating from a group historically identified with the philanthropic traditions, as that published by the Information Service of the Federal Council of Churches.

BUT such fulminations as the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor has hurled at the Federal Council fail to take account of the fact that the very success of Labor in achieving a coordinate status with other groups in the community and a corresponding influence in public affairs makes its policies and activities of vital and proper concern to all other groups and individuals in the community. If the American Federation of Labor limited its activities to the workshop, to problems of hours and wages, to the haggling of the labor market, it might be warranted in demanding that all other groups should keep hands off except "where service can be rendered in advancing the interests of the masses of the people." But there are few matters of serious public concern which the American Federation of Labor omits from its purview. Its "demands" upon Congress and the political parties deal with the courts, with immigration, education and many other subjects of fundamental public policy. The logic of this extension of interest has led Labor in most western countries to enter politics on an independent party basis with a view to making its policies the policies of the nation. While the American Federation of Labor, as the Information Service of the Federal Council of Churches is careful to point out, protests its opposition to such independent political action, numerically powerful labor groups—including important unions affiliated with the federation itself—have declared their determination to follow this logic.

In view of the facts of record, it is not only the right of the social service departments of the church organizations, of all other social workers, and indeed of all citizens to concern themselves with the policies and activities of the labor movement; it is their manifest civic duty.

THE Cabot Fund on August 16, a year after Judge Gary's order to the manufacturing companies of the United States Steel Corporation to eliminate the twelve-hour day, published a summary of a report by S. Adele Shaw, based on investigation made in April of this year, on the extent to which the long day and the seven-day week have been replaced by the eight-hour day and the six-day week. The gist of the summary is given by Miss Shaw in her article on page 568 of this issue. The trustees of the Cabot Fund realized that the full effects of the new time schedules on production, on costs of manufacture, on the lives of the workers, and on the life of the steel towns could not make themselves felt in the brief period of eight months. They felt, however, that since the leaders in the steel industry had taken this important step in response to persistent public demand, they deserved the continued support of those who had been among the most aggressive critics of the twelve-hour day and the seven-day week.

While Miss Shaw found that when her investigation was made "the steel industry had by no means gone to an eight-hour day and a six-day week," and that "where the change has been attempted the general tendency has been to put the blast furnaces and the open hearth department where work is continuous onto a three shift system, the men worknig eight hours a day for seven days a week," her report, like the parallel study of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, shows that long steps have been taken in the desired direction. That the officers of the Steel Corporation are alert to the public interest and are determined to fulfill their public pledge is interestingly revealed by the fact that on August 13, following Miss Shaw's investigation and the distribution of the summary of her report, the presidents of the corporation's manufacturing companies in executive session with Judge Gary stated that the seven-day week had been completely eliminated from their plants. It is to be hoped that both the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Cabot Fund will make further surveys after the steel industry has had ample time to put the new policy fully into effect in order that the industry which was so long the object of adverse criticism may be accorded the appreciation which in the light of the statement of the presidents of the United States Steel Corporation's manufacturing companies is due their achievement.

ANENT the debate—Does Fundamentalism Obstruct Social Progress?—which was argued pro and con in The Survey for July, by Professor Fagnani and Professor Machen, it is worth noting that one of the leading fundamentalist journals in the country has come out flat-footedly against the proposed twentieth amendment to the Constitution safeguarding children from the evils of child labor. The Presbyterian (Philadelphia) argues thus:

> The rearing and care of children is not committed to the State, but to the parents by the law of God. . . The training of children to industry from their earliest years without oppression is of the first importance to the nation, the family and the individual. Nothing could be more perilous to the rising generation than for them to feel that the State protected them from work, and that idleness was their right. One of the greatest blessings of this nation, and one of the sources of its greatest power has been the necessity of its youth learning to work at an early period in life.

One is tempted to comment, but why paint the lily? Is this a flower of the fundamentalist philosophy? It is, at all events, a philosophy which finds a sympathetic response in Georgia, where the amendment has been rejected, the Senate voting unanimously against it. Arkansas, however, repudiates this point of view. The governor signed the bill ratifying the amendment on June 29.

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Neighbors

IN England one always expects to hear conversation directed to matters of political interest and now more than ever it is the chief theme. Everywhere at luncheon, at tea, at dinner, before and after the theater, one hears talk of the Labour Ministry. This is not only to be said of groups of friends and acquaintances but of the chance people with whom one exchanges the brief courtesies of the day—the expressman, the taxi drivers, the typists, the telephone girls, the porters. All are ready to talk—and at length too. More than is usual in English life personalities are freely commented upon and analyzed, and their past, present, and future quite openly discussed. The English people seem to look upon the Labour Ministry as a great adventure. Unaffected admiration and apparently good will seems to be quite generally given from members of all parties. The most satirical remark I heard from the opposition was: "They have done nothing but they have done it well."

The prime minister himself seems to have captured the admiration, the respect, and (in many instances) the genuine love of the people. His high moral stature, personal charm, expert parliamentarism, endless variety of interests and a sense of romance about him, would sufficiently explain this.

Next to him I think it is safe to say that Margaret Bondfield occupies the position of interest. The typist who came to help me remarked, as I dictated engagements with Miss Bondfield, "My father thinks she's a grand one and nigh unto the best brains in the land" and Viscount Haldane, à propos of a clever manner in announcing a program in Montagu House, was almost as flattering. In American circles and in some in England there was disappointment because "she" was not placed in the cabinet. But Margaret Bondfield herself is sure that she is exactly where she ought to be. Miss Bondfield's official title is Parliamentary Secretary of the Ministry of Labour. As such, besides acting in every sense as the deputy of the minister (this was made clear in a statement by the Prime Minister himself) she has general charge under the minister of certain important branches of the ministry's work, as for example administration of Trade Boards, and is also the British Government delegate to the governing body and conference of the International Labour Office in Geneva. Miss Bondfield is especially interested in the training and employment of women and as the sole woman minister of the government has had the interests of women as well as children allotted to her charge. In addition, she is a member of the committee which advises the cabinet on questions of unemployment and juvenile employment. Miss Bondfield's visit to Canada scheduled for August will no doubt add to her personal knowledge of the employment of children and of labour conditions in general.

I had the privilege, upon her invitation, of sitting in her office in the House of Commons and listening to an interdepartmental discussion on funding, policy, and certain details concerning maternity insurance and other insurance protection. After the pleasant tea and raillery upon the allocation of the delicious tea served by the House to its members the discussion opened up. It was so informal that one could hardly say that Miss Bondfield presided, but she led, and to my attentive eyes and ears it was evident that no one was allowed to drift away into technicalities from the essential point—the mother and her protection. She sits tight on every question before her and though she is an acknowledged technician she is always a social worker too.

A few days later a party, one might better say "a crush," was held in the beautiful rooms of Montagu House, once the ducal abode, now the headquarters of Labour. Practically all the members of the Labour Ministry, their wives and some of their best friends were invited to a tea—and a generous tea it was. Miss Bondfield's idea was to have them meet each other—to give them the opportunity to get off in corners with various experts and have questions asked and answered personally. To facilitate this every member of the staff of Montagu House wore on coat or waist his or her name legibly printed. No speaker on a platform with an audience sitting to be instructed—but hosts and guests seeking the particular person who knew all about discharged soldiers, rehabilitation, juvenile employment or some other of the manifold interests of the department. After sufficient time had been given for the guests and staff to orient themselves, Margaret Bondfield stood on a chair and recapitulated the various subjects that might be discussed and urged that those desiring further information avail themselves of the presence of the men and women capable of supplying this information.

Photograph copyright by Paul Thompson

Margaret Bondfield

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Naturally the question of unemployment occupies the thought of the population outside of parliament and is the storm center within the house, and much of Miss Bondfield's time has been occupied with that problem and its relief. The party has long views for unemployment relief and is conscious of the precariousness of the position it holds. It should be obvious that it cannot enter into any reforms which might bring radical relief without first securing the legislation essential to a minority party.

The prime minister and his colleagues have made it plain that they desire to adjust programs to actual conditions and that they are working for the future, for the people, even if they themselves may not be permitted to administer the benefits of evolutionary progress. They indulge in no oratorical fireworks and present no programs that they believe to be incapable of realization. But nothing is left undone and they can show statistical improvement.

Miss Bondfield shows careful sincerity and frankness and is not afraid to say that the insurance scheme has defects "which we are gradually curing in the light of experience, and a year or two of experience is worth a ton of theory in the handling of questions of this sort."

Innumerable as are the duties and obligations scheduled for Miss Bondfield's study and action, the things unscheduled seem to be equally numerous and varied. Trade Board meetings, gatherings of informal groups preliminary to or preventive of disputes, speeches (oh so many), reading. Alert to see and to act, Miss Bondfield appears, to one capable of imagining her job and its implications, an extraordinary example of political leadership. She brings into action the instincts and the training—by long years of adventure—of a working woman with rare intelligence and a vision. She seems to have time in her carefully apportioned twenty-four hours to do everything well save to play the society woman.

Margaret Bondfield herself sees how the years of struggle and experience in labor organizations and in conferences have prepared her for the work she is now performing. She is happy, good looking, and almost the readiest person in England to step into action. LILLIAN D. WALD

PADDY the Cope—Patrick Gallagher of Dongloe—was the hero of The Romance of Templecrone, which Savel Zimand related in the Irish number of Survey Graphic three years ago (December, 1921). Paddy, Mr. Zimand was told, "is the man who made it possible for the people of this parish to live a better life. He is the man with an awakened mind who felt the sorrows of his people."

The romance was one of cooperation: farmers linked together were able to free themselves from economic slavery to the gombeen men, the usurers. Elmer Scott, whose own interest in cooperative effort takes form in the Civic Federation of Dallas, Texas, is just back from Ireland and England, and tells of a visit to Dongloe, County Donegal, He found that Paddy's cooperative enterprises were no whit less significant now than they were before the Free State was created; indeed, they give evidence of constant progress, new reaches of influence, and initiative of a high order.

Dongloe has now a new knitting mill with modern equipment where 190 Irish girls from this remote district are happily and profitably engaged in knitting not only hosiery but gloves, jumpers and sport suits. Through a New York corporation excellent consignments of these products are exported to the United States. Small steamers, indeed, can come to Dongloe now and tie up at the cooperative dock.

An old mill with fine water power was bought and is now grinding maize and wheat for the cooperators. The water-power generates—also cooperatively—not only enough electricity to light the whole village but enough to furnish all the power needed for the cooperative enterprises.

Paddy is now experimenting to see if even the granite hills may be utilized for paving "sets" to ship to England and Scotland for city streets. The older undertakings—the cooperative store, the bakery, the egg-packing—have grown and flourished: the turnover in 1923 was close to $450,000. And all this has come about in a desolate district of little arable land where eighteen years ago a poverty-stricken people were in virtual bondage.

Perhaps the most significant inspiration of it all lies in the fact that an organizing genius like Patrick Gallagher has that rare spiritual quality which has enabled him to refuse the beckonings which must have come to him to go out from his little village and his own people to conquer new worlds. Lifelong loyalty and devotion to one's own community are rare enough in this migratory world to make their possessor a marked man.

V. Everit Macy

TEN years and a half ago V. Everit Macy did a remarkable thing. He resigned directorships in twenty corporations, turned his back on a life of leadership and counsel in financial affairs, and gave up the comparative leisure of a man of wealth. Instead of this alluring prospect, he announced himself as a candidate for political office. The office that he sought was Superintendent of the Poor in Westchester County, New York. Instantly, of course, there was a local tempest. It was inquired what this rich man wanted with a job as superintendent of the poor? Didn't he know that that was a crazy idea? The "rich man in the poor-house" became a slogan both of contempt and of admiring approval. It was pointed out also that this job belonged to the Republican organization of the county, and that if Mr. Macy thought that he could step in and take it he was mistaken. . . . When, on the occasion of his resignation the other day, social workers, judges, doctors, county officials, politicians and interested parents gathered to honor him at dinner, they recalled both the circumstances under which he had announced his candidacy and the work

(*Continued on page* 594)

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Education for a Profession-in-the-Making

By VIRGINIA P. ROBINSON

If social work is a profession in the making, the process of preparing for it must needs be similarly fluid and experimental, and the development of that process may throw light on all professional education. Miss Robinson, who pleads for continued flexibility in this development, is secretary of the Association of Schools of Professional Social Work and associate director of the Pennsylvania School of Social and Health Work.

AS social work struggles to put itself on a professional basis, it looks about for that essential adjunct to professional status and dignity, the professional school. Yet, on the other hand, the convictions of the profession as to the value of the professional school training are seen to be not too deeply rooted, when the constitution of the American Association of Social Workers makes college education a requirement for junior membership but ranks one year in a professional school as no more than equivalent to one year's work in a standard agency. The reason for this attitude towards the school of social work is not far to seek when we look at the history of the "training" movement. The word "training" is significant and its continued usage encourages, I believe, a great deal of the confusion that obscures this field of education and the attitude of the profession towards it. Only within the last year has it been dropped from the title of the Association of Schools of Professional Social Work. We still speak of the "trained" worker. The word "training" standing alone implies a method much more superficial, routine and stereotyped than we mean, while education in its most modern and dynamic sense includes as an essential part of its method all the value of "learning through doing" for which social workers contend.

This training movement has at no time been confined to what goes on within the walls of an organized school of social work. Even today with twenty-two recognized schools waiting and ready for students there are still many college graduates who choose a year or two years with a good family agency in preference to school work, and this often on the advice of the older professional worker. This strictly apprentice method of training, where the student or worker-in-training on scholarship salary gets, through the job itself and supervision on that job, his method, technique, point of view and philosophy, may be thought of as occupying one extreme position in the field of education for social work. This method of teaching on the job is one of the oldest and at the same time the most progressive method we know in any field of education today. But, to an agency responsible first of all to the community for the welfare of its clients, the education of students must of necessity be a secondary interest. This interest in the education of students needs to be specialized, developed, worked with in a way which can be accomplished only where a school, not an agency, is directing the plan.

In recognition of this obvious situation the agencies long ago pooled their teaching resources and handed over the direction of the curriculum to an educational group. Originally this group might be in personnel no different from the supervisors and executives of the agencies but by coming together as the faculty of a school they focused on and developed the educational needs of the situation. Out of such beginnings have come several of the well established schools of social work, the New York School, the Pennsylvania School, the Boston School (now Simmons College). Such schools still retain their close contact with the agencies, with all the accruing advantage of rich field-work experiences for students and of an elastic curriculum, changing and growing as the advance of the profession necessitates.

A third development of professional education in this field, at the opposite extreme from the apprentice method, is coming from the colleges, chiefly from departments of sociology. Of the twenty-two schools of social work now included in the national organization, the Association of Schools of Professional Social Work, the larger number have developed out of college departments, the impetus often coming from the profession but the administration and control residing from the start with the academic institution. Here we find a new standard of values, a strange set of problems, methods of teaching differing from those presented in the schools which have been developed by the profession itself. The problem of fitting field work, which is concerned with human beings in their uncertain, irrelevant, illogical and yet highly serious affairs of daily living, into the college roster, logically and mathematically determined; the problem of assigning academic credits for such field work, much of which from the academic and laboratory point of view must seem unworthy of credit; the question of degrees to be granted—such problems loom large and occupy the center of attention. As to content of courses and teaching method, the colleges have very generally tried to bring in practitioners from the field of social work to teach the professional courses, creating in so doing a new problem in the relationship of the skilled practitioner, usually minus a higher academic degree, to the academic faculty where the Ph.D. is a necessary requirement for standing.

Representatives of these two methods of education, the college or university school and the school developed and controlled by the profession, have been coming together for five years now in the Association of Schools of Professional Social Work in biennial meetings; at Christmas, in conjunction with the American Sociological Society, where the college point of view predominates, and in the summer, in connection with the National Conference of Social Work, where the point of view of the profession prevails. The

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Many courses beginning with the Fall Quarter on October first are designed to prepare students for positions constantly opening in the several fields of social work. Among new courses recently added are those in *Psychiatry* by Dr. Frankwood Williams; *Social Psychology* by E. C. Lindeman; and *Social Case Work* by Miss Helen Kempton. A complete announcement of the School's curiculum will be mailed upon request.

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two groups speak a different language, but have learned through five years' association at least to understand each other. Each has gained from the other: the professional school has been stimulated by the university school to pull up its entrance requirements to a definite standard, to strengthen its curriculum on the graduate and professional sides, eliminating overlapping in courses and throwing back into the academic colleges pre-professional material; the college and university departments, on the other hand, have been made more aware of the educational material to be found in the field of social work itself and to be had only by working on a job in that field or in closest association with the workers. So the college text book of sociology is yielding place to the case record of the families, the institutions, the social resources of the community.

Such contact with life never fails to be thrilling and even the more conservative and academic institutions are beginning to be stirred by the new wave of interest in social work. In the past year or two new curriculums of social work have been set up here and there, in one college and another, often no more than a new grouping of old courses with an additional class in social case work or community work and some accompanying field work. Usually such departments are undergraduate, a specialization permitted to juniors and seniors. These departments may spring up without the knowledge of the profession or other schools of social work, sometimes with no other impetus than the commendable desire of one sociology professor to introduce more life and reality into his courses.

THIS is a tendency to be watched with real concern by the Association of Schools of Professional Social Work and the American Association of Social Workers. If social work is ever to become a true profession, its method, its techniques, and its educational material are to be found on the job itself, in what is learned about human relationships and social controls by the people who are working with these relationships. Very possibly we can pack into two full freshman and sophomore years of university or college enough backgrounds in English and literature, in history and sociology, in economics and politics, in biology and psychology, so that the junior is academically ready for professional courses in social work. But by what known process of forcing growth can we fit the college junior of nineteen or twenty years, still undergraduate in interests and habits of thinking, into the living field work problems, ability to grapple with which should be the sign and seal of his readiness to enter professional training? The graduate professional school sets twenty-one as a rough minimum age requirement, realizing that the girl or boy even of these years is often too immature to be forced into responsible social problems, but feeling sure that at least so much protection to both student and client must be insured. With the profession rather than with the schools rests the responsibility for an effective stand on this point. If the field work agencies, flattered by the interest of college undergraduates, try to simplify their tasks and introduce college students to certain phases of their work, giving the impression that this is the breadth and depth of field work which the profession can offer, we cannot be surprised if the college credits such field work and sends the student out degreed and certificated ready for a job. Such simplified field work can be offered by certain agencies, and it has its

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value—providing it is regarded as introductory and pre-professional and the student who has been through it is recognized as no more ready for responsibility than the medical student who has handed instruments to the surgeons is ready to operate. Some of the older undergraduate schools have done excellent service in working up certain fields, such as group work, where undergraduates can function happily, in specializing in these fields, and in frankly refusing to prepare thoroughly for other professional fields such as case work where maturity is so essential to responsible performance.

ONE thing of significance at least has been achieved in the five years of its history by the Association of Schools of Professional Social Work, with all its differences of problems and points of view—an agreement to differ and to experiment in difference. Again and again the desire for a standardized curriculum springs up, each time to be put aside by an appreciation of the value to come from the very diverse experiments that are going on under different conditions. If this experimental attitude can be maintained I am convinced that this newest profession will have a real contribution to make to the theory and method of professional education in general. Here again the responsibility must rest with the profession to gain and hold for its schools this opportunity for experimental development. Education for social work is still very close to those fields beyond the outskirts of classified scientific knowledge where personality and social relationships are being studied and worked with. Its rare opportunity, scientifically and educationally, is to go ahead with the workers, describing, analyzing, interpreting all the wealth of material the workers provide; its danger is that it be pulled back by sound academic traditions to standards, to classifications, to measurable and quantitative values, and crystalize too soon in its development. Can this profession maintain a faith in the values to come out of its own material, its own labor, its own thinking, that will hold its own with the established belief in the value of the academic degree?

This faith must be demonstrated in practical ways. As long as agencies continue to employ students just out of academic courses in college at salaries only slightly less than those paid to professional school graduates we cannot expect either college graduates or the community in general to be very much impressed by the value of the professional school.

ONE other essential for the development of education for social work must be mentioned. The handicap of lack of financial support is one that threatens to stifle progress both for the independent school and the college or university department. The independent school is naturally one of the last agencies to seem deserving of support to a community chest with the needs of the poor and sick always pressing for funds; the department of the college or university must struggle for its chance along with other departments. Professional education in other fields has depended upon endowments and so, for the field of social work, endowment must be obtained, for scholarships, for the working up of teaching material from the field, for teaching, for research, if the schools are to develop soundly and experimentally. Only through such a development in its education can social work hope to come to its full professional status.

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NEIGHBORS

(*Continued from page* 588)

he had done. The county was then, as it still is, the most backward unit in the American political system. It lay to one side of the main roads of American political consciousness. Cities, and even states, had felt the cool breeze of reform intelligence, but the county was a miasmic bog, malarial, undisturbed. Especially is this true, of course, of suburban counties, with large populations of commuters, city-bent in their steps and their interests. Politically, the ways of most counties are still dark and their chief sustenance graft.

Westchester County was no exception to this rule. The "poor master," as the superintendent of the poor was called, sat in a back office and sold favors for jugs of whiskey. His job was to preside over an almshouse, direct a county hospital in which there was no equipment, do a few things for dependent children, and generally to look after the destitute. Neither he nor many of those who elected him had any conception of his opportunities. The almshouse consisted of ramshackle buildings in which the aged inmates froze, starved and fought with vermin. The hospital was little better than a vestibule to the morgue. Dependent children seldom knew there was a poor master. The teamster who hauled ice from the ice-house of the almshouse kept a local ice-cream parlor supplied the year round; petty graft was abundant. The poor master seldom knew what he was about. He kept his records in such a disorderly way that when Mr. Macy took charge he found that thirty persons who were not in the almshouse at all were charged to various towns and that their support was being paid; one village was cheerfully footing the bills for a man who had been dead two years! The poor master who preceded Mr. Macy had been a small-town butcher, who sold veal chops to ladies when he wasn't experimenting in making poor people more miserable.

Mr. Macy sought the job, not because he wanted to sit with his feet on a table, but because he saw that he could do something with it. He had served as member of boards of several New York city charitable and social agencies. He knew that, widespread as was the phenomenon of dependency and destitution, little cogent analysis had been made of its causes. He saw an opportunity to help those who were already dependent, but he also saw an opportunity to learn something about the origins of dependency. Social misery had been an issue in the Bull Moose campaign of 1912, and people were talking about all manner of laws for its prevention. Mr. Macy decided that the time was ripe to get some close-to-the-ground facts on the subject.

His achievements have been told in other years in The Survey. He brought the dependent children of the county under a wise and effective protection, reaching out into every home of want and marshalling the charitable resources of the county to make children more happy. He extended the jurisdiction of his office to include offenders against the law, built a new and excellent penitentiary, and established a regime of prison management that, from its intelligently organized industries to its plan of inmate self-government, bore some relation to the human needs of law-breakers and therefore some promise of protection to society. He persuaded the Board of Supervisors to appropriate millions for a new county hospital, held them to a belief in this through

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the desperate days of war and of soaring building costs, and at last saw a hospital for indigent people arise that is a credit to the county. In the shabby structure that preceded it, surgical instruments were sterilized on the kitchen range; today Grasslands, the new hospital, is on the approved list of the American College of Surgeons and many people willingly pay to enter it. Mr. Macy took the lead in securing a county juvenile court, which now receives delinquent children from nearly a hundred magistrates, most of them untrained laymen. In his work for children, under the exceptionally able direction of Ruth Taylor, he not only replaced care in institutions with care in private family homes, but, despite a policy of going out to find dependent children instead of letting them come to him, actually reduced in 1918 the number of children receiving aid—the first time that the county had ever seen a reduction in dependent children from one year to another. He introduced the payment of mothers' allowances under the state poor law, and here again achieved the ambition of every social worker's heart, namely, the reduction (in this instance after six years) both of the total sums so expended and of the number of mothers needing aid, without diminishing the effectiveness of the assistance granted.

In addition to such major achievements, he obliterated the minor absurdities of county poor relief. He replaced fetid stews with real food in the almshouse; he kept decent records; he found work for the able-bodied; he provided doctors, psychiatrists and dietitians; he made it possible for an insane person awaiting commitment to a state institution to be decently cared for; he introduced a budget; and he generally elevated common sense to its rightful place in what is essentially a business for humanity. He reorganized the social work of the county government from top to bottom, and made each branch a model that attracted students from distant places. No wonder that his resignation, from impaired health and the need of a rest, led to spontaneous regret throughout the county. At the dinner, attended by national leaders in social work, it was recalled that perhaps not before in the history of Westchester County had an officce-holder been given three terms, as had Mr. Macy. A Republican politician, a member of the party that rules Westchester County and that opposed Mr. Macy in his first campaign, paid him this remarkable tribute: "So long as the Republican organization of Westchester County is controlled as it is at present, it will be found to a man supporting the kind of service that Mr. Macy began." His successor, George Werner, is a leading office-holder in the party and has pledged himself to the main outlines of the Macy program. . . . There did not seem to be any at the dinner who thought that Mr. Macy had performed an isolated miracle. They thought rather that other counties in many states could do the same thing. True, Mr. Macy had paid some salaries, while his staff was growing, out of his own pocket. But the big expenditures were all borne by the county, and today every item of expense has been taken over by the county. Every policy has been approved by the Board of Supervisors. If Mr. Macy was a forerunner in showing what could be done with the humanitarian work of a county, he only did for that unit of government what had already been done in some measure for cities and states. And it is to be hoped, since the American county is likely to continue, that the example set by him in Westchester may prove suggestive to other counties. W. D. L.

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THE NEGRO BUILDS FOR HIMSELF

(*Continued from page 567*)

was devoted to the attempt to induce the trustees of a local church to donate three or four acres of their large church site for this purpose.

One of the older men present argued earnestly that the good old days had passed and that it was necessary to build good schools and good churches in order to make up, in a way, for the things that the younger generation was missing. In his youth, he said, people had much better and more varied things to eat—turkey, wild and tame, chickens, pigs and lambs, all kinds of fowl, fish, oysters and clams, and "other things not to be mentioned." The new generation was really entitled to some compensation for the loss of that greater past. True or not, the story was impressive, and the trustees decided to donate the school site.

The task of furnishing adequate school facilities to the rural colored children of North Carolina is well under way; but it is still far from complete. Here are the facts:

On October 8, 1915, N. C. Newbold, state director of Negro education, inspected the first colored school to receive aid from the Julius Rosenwald Fund in North Carolina. It was a two-teacher school, erected at a cost of $1,622. The contributions on this project were as follows:

From Negroes	$486
From public school authorities	836
From Rosenwald Fund	300

Since that date, to July 1, 1924, the number of Rosenwald schoolhouses in North Carolina has grown to 414, with 10 teachers' homes. The total cost of these projects has been $1,794,439.00, contributed as follows:

Negroes	$357,608.00*
Whites (donations)	65,346.00
Public school authorities	1,055,449.00
Rosenwald fund	316,036.00

In the 414 school buildings there are 1,076 classrooms, with room for some 40,000 children. The sites on which these buildings are located contain from two to ten acres, each. With a total Negro school population in the state of about 216,000, it can be seen that there is a Rosenwald classroom in North Carolina, now, for each 200 Negro children. That is to say, the task is still, at best, not more than 20 per cent complete.

We may sum up the story in the words of G. E. Davis, supervisor of Rosenwald buildings for the state department of education:

"Building good Rosenwald schools has helped to stabilize industrial and social conditions by encouraging colored people to own and build their own homes near such schools. It has set higher ideals for rural groups. It has prompted whites to build better schools for themselves. These buildings become at once social centers from which emanates good to every home that sends a child. The result is a better group of colored people; and by the same token a better and more tolerant white group. North Carolina has frankly faced its problem of educating all its citizens. The problem is a distinctly human one and involves the peace and happiness of our great commonwealth."

* In fairness, it should be added that some of the sum here credited to Negroes was contributed by whites, but reported by Negro solicitors. The amounts that should thus be subtracted from the Negro contributions and added to the whites cannot, of course, be computed.

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SIX CHILDREN IN SEARCH OF AN EDUCATOR

(*Continued from page* 580)

despite one and one-half years experience in a private school.

His vigorous, active, rapid imagination rushes to the forefront in defense and in place of reading the page as printed, he invents the story as he goes through the form of reading. The word "city" is read as "cat," "dog" as "girl," and isolated words are not identified as the same on different occasions. In the same manner, his spelling is of a peculiar type—"boy, b-o-s;" "man, w-h-i-o;" "dog, s-o-u." He cannot spell his own name though he attempts it, making different letter combinations on different days. Finally, letter recognition is equally faulty: *g* is *b; d* is *c; w* is *j*. It is immaterial to him whether the letters are printed in correct or reversed form. B or ꟾ, C or Ↄ, K or ꓘ, are identified with equal facility and success. This peculiar power is exhibited also with figures and numbers. In writing, Robert is ambidexterous and he makes reversals of letters and numbers with both hands, though to a greater extent when using his left hand. His drawing ability is marked.

An examination of the eyes revealed a normal optical apparatus, as far as could be determined. The intelligence quotient is misleading because, despite its indication of normal intelligence, there is a marked weakness which is interfering with school progress. Robert is not lacking in concentration and persistence but he is handicapped by a congenital cerebral deficiency, the origin of which is unknown. He possesses a weakness of the word centers. There is no difficulty on the motor side of speech, as he has a free flow of words and expresses his ideas without difficulty. Whether his visual speech center is affected, or association fibres have failed to develop, is unknown. There is a definite lack of association of sounds and the forms of letters and words with considerable slowness in associating symbols. He has an incapacity of relative seriousness that is frequently termed congenital word blindness.

A second important element lies in his definite left handedness. As a result of school training that endeavored to make him use his right hand for school work, he has become the victim of mental confusion. Hence he has now two dissimilar mental impressions for the same idea, as manifest in his unitary interpretation of correct and reversed figures, letters, numbers, and words. However, the problem of sinistrality in Robert's case is of minor significance compared with the cerebral deficiency.

His achievement in school work has been negligible, and the fault lies not in lack of concentration but in a failure to absorb the subjects as taught. With his particularly strong auditory memory a greater degree of dependence must be placed upon it for imparting instruction. The visual approach is the one commonly employed in schools; probably three-quarters of educational material is presented through the eye. It will not suffice for Robert.

For a long time this boy will require a special program under the direction of a competent, patient and understanding tutor. The emphasis must be placed upon reading to the child and explaining everything.

It is unwise to stress reading because of his tendency to phantasy which already is making the exactness of many of his tales uncertain. Robert must be held down to truth and accuracy in all directions. The building up of his visual memory is essential to his success, therefore attention is required to enable him to recall and to draw designs, including printed letters. It is preferable to teach him to print letters rather than to write them, as he will be gaining a single visual image which is of service in acquiring power over the printed page for reading or spelling. There should be drill in tracing letters and numbers. He should be permitted to use his left hand without restriction.

Phonetic drills call for close correlation with printing and tracing phonograms and sounding them carefully. A simple reader that uses no more than three hundred words with constant repetitions should be employed and progress in it should be no more rapid than is in harmony with the increased power over word recognition. These words should serve as the basis of printing, copying, and phonetic drills. All the senses should be directed as supports to the weak cortical centers.

It is hardly necessary to stress the value of keeping this child in contact with a group of normal children while he is securing the individual instruction. It would be unfortunate to isolate him for educational purposes as there is a vigorous necessity for the training of his character, independence, and self-control that is derived from the normal companionship of other children.

To all intents and purposes Robert is a normal child with a special disability that merits consideration. He is bound to be broken on the pedagogic wheel unless his particular variations are accepted and he treated accordingly. What the outcome will be it is impossible to state.

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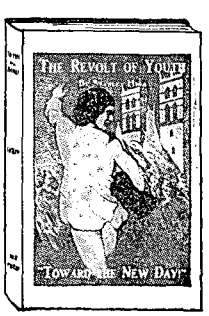

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COMMUNITY SERVICE—315 Fourth Ave., New York City. A national civic movement for promoting citizenship through right use of leisure. It will, on request, help local communities work out leisure time programs. H. S. Braucher, secretary.

COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN—305 W. 98th Street, New York. Miss Rose Brenner, president; Mrs. Harry Sternberger, executive secretary. Promotes civic cooperation, education, religion and social welfare in the United States, Canada, Cuba, Europe.

Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Mrs. S. J. Rosensohn, chairman. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Organized in 1908; 20 constituent Protestant, national women's mission boards. Florence E. Quinlan, exec. sec'y. Committee on Farm and Cannery Migrants, Summer Service for College Students. Laura H. Parker, exec. supervisor.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 30 Protestant denominations. Rev. Chas. S. Macfarland, Rev. S. M. Cavert, general secretaries; 105 East 22nd Street, New York.

Commission on the Church and Social Service—Rev. Worth M. Tippy, executive secretary; Rev. F. Ernest Johnson, research secretary; Agnes H. Campbell, research assistant; Inez M. Cavert, librarian.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro and Indian youth for community service. Advanced courses: agriculture, builders, business, home-economics, normal. Publishes "Southern Workman" and free material on Negro problems. J. E. Gregg, principal.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—First appointed 1854, located New York City 1866, incorporated 1883. Headquarters office, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City, N. Y. Tel., Vanderbilt 1200. Branch offices, Chicago, Atlanta, Denver. Chairman, James M. Speers; treasurer, B. H. Fancher; general secretary, John R. Mott. The Committee maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries for service in the interests of the Young Men's Christian Associations at home and abroad.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42nd Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CIVIC SECRETARIES—Walter T. Arndt, president, New York; Robert E. Tracy, secretary, 313 South Broad Street, Philadelphia. Purpose—To provide contact and interchange of ideas and information among professional secretaries of civic organizations. Annual meeting held with National Municipal League.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, general secretary, 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration, children's codes. Studies child labor, health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10, $25 and $100 includes monthly publication, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC.—Charles F. Powlison, general secretary, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York. Originates and publishes exhibit material which visualizes the principles and conditions affecting the health, well-being and education of children. Cooperates with educators, public health agencies, and all child welfare groups in community, city or state-wide service through exhibits, child welfare campaigns, etc.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE—Dr. William H. Welch, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, med. dir.; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, secretary; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, nervous and mental disorders, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, inebriety, criminology, psychiatric social service, backward children, surveys, state societies. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $ .25 a year.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, secretary; 130 East 22nd Street, New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement—samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Wm. J. Norton, president, Detroit, Michigan; W. H. Parker, Secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-second annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Denver, Colorado, June 10th to 17th, 1925. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS AND PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS—Executive office: Mrs. A. H. Reeve, president, Chestnut Hill, Philadelphia, Pa.; national headquarters: Mrs. Arthur C. Watkins, executive secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. An organization interested in the promotion of child welfare, adequate legislation for women and children, closer relation between home and school.

NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, general secretary. Promotes legislation for enlightened standards for women and minors in industry and for honest products; minimum wage commissions, eight hour day, no night work, federal regulation food and packing industries; "honest cloth" legislation. Publications available.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF SETTLEMENTS—Albert J. Kennedy, sec'y; 20 Union Park, Boston. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work, seek the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life.

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NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE—315 Fourth Ave., New York, N. Y. To obtain progressive legislation for physical education. Established at the request of a committee created by the United States Bureau of Education: 35 national organizations cooperating. Maintained by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.: Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

NATIONAL WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION—Anna A. Gordon, president; Headquarters, 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Illinois. To secure effective enforcement of the Eighteenth Amendment, to advance the welfare of the American people through the departments of Child Welfare, Women in Industry, Social Morality, Scientific Temperance Instruction, Americanization and other allied fields of endeavor. Official publication "The Union Signal" published at Headquarters.

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of protective legislation. Information given.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. Special attention given to organization of year-round municipal recreation systems. Information available on playground and community center activities and administration.

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THE SURVEY'S DIRECTORY

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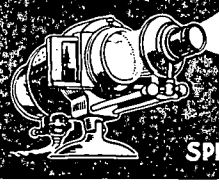

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NEXT STEPS FOR THE COUNTRY CHURCH

(*Continued from page* 584)

munity service. The rooms designed for the former purpose can also be used for the latter. Beauty there should still be in the structure—beauty of design, material, workmanship and decoration. But with beauty, utility. In the coming country church, of which there are already some examples, are rooms for the very young, a nursery perhaps for the children of mothers attending church, rooms for various age of sex group organizations, kitchens serving as an example to the countryside. There will also be a gymnasium-auditorium for athletics, plays, musicals and good times. Anything fit to enter into the life of the people is fit to enter into the people's church in these rural communities where the school and church are the only institutions.

5. *Greater cooperation between denominations* is another step so frequently discussed, so axiomatic, so inevitable, if the church is to survive at all, that it needs but the stating.

6. Finally, *the new rural church will come to its people with a meaningful message.* The primary social utility of the church is the exercise of its spiritual functions. It is a character-building institution. Because of the demand of necessity, it must, like its Master, "go about doing good," but its spiritual message must be designed alike to meet each day's need—in the age of scientific agriculture—and the need of the human soul as it faces life's deepest mysteries. It must transform the grind of labor involved in raising wheat into the satisfaction that comes from being a co-worker with God in answering the world's prayer for daily bread. The further advance of the rural church calls not for "the social program" or for "the evangelistic program": it calls for an all-round program interpreting the best religion of the ages in terms of the best spirit of this age.

Rural America offers a great field to the church. The pioneers have found the way of successful leadership and ministry. In village and farm fifty million people wait. The next steps of country church advance are clearly indicated. Through surveys and experience we have both the diagnosis and the cure in our hands. By the application of sheer Christianity to the situation, and only so, will the way be cleared for those churches destined to survive to serve well.

STUDENTS WHO PAY BACK

(*Continued from page* 582)

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(*Continued on page* 604)

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SUPERINTENDENT WANTED. Man and wife preferred. Jewish home for aged and orphans—35 children and five aged. Write Wilfred B. Feigs, 340 Main St., Worcester, Massachusetts.

TEACHER governess for girl and boy. Mrs. F. B. Riggs, Lakeville, Conn.

WANTED: family case worker. State education, experience, references, and salary expected. Box 1134, Pittsburgh, Pa.

WORKER, capable to direct girls' activities and clubs and assist headworker in New York settlement. State experience and references. 4868 SURVEY.

WANTED: In Pittsburgh, Case Worker (Jewess preferred) for girls. State age, education, experience, salary desired. Give references. 4903 SURVEY.

ROCHESTER Family Society needs District Secretary beginning October first. Position requires training and experience. Address 512 Cutler Building, Rochester, N. Y.

LADY Cook-Housekeeper wanted, for group of college women working farm. 4907 SURVEY.

WANTED: Episcopalian woman as general visitor. Some case work experience with family welfare or girls' organization required. Church Mission of Help, Room 301, 1123 Broadway, New York City.

WANTED: Family case worker. State education, experience, references and salary expected. 118 East 17th St., Rock Island, Ill.

MATRON, Jewish, for small orphan institution in Bridgeport, Conn. Address at once, Mrs. M. Nudelman, 1222 Park Ave., Bridgeport, Connecticut.

WANTED: A teacher in institution for delinquent women. Apply to Helen Hazard, Niantic, Conn.

RECREATION worker to direct activities two or three evenings weekly. Social center for deafened. 4914 SURVEY.

WORKERS WANTED

WANTED by Jewish center in Philadelphia, director of recreational and educational activities. 4915 SURVEY.

WANTED: Executive for small unattached clinic in Detroit. 1200 monthly attendance. Taking on character of public health clinic. Graduate nurse with dispensary experience preferred. Salary (to start) $200 per month. 4917 SURVEY.

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COOPERATIVE PLACEMENT SERVICE. Social workers, secretaries, superintendents, matrons, housekeepers, dietitians, cafeteria managers. The Richards Bureau, 68 Barnes Street, Providence, R. I.

YOUNG WOMAN: Room and full board, New York City settlement, for four evenings and one afternoon social work weekly, nine months, beginning September 15. 4925 SURVEY.

WANTED: For school of high grade backward children, man to teach manual vocations to boys. Woman to teach articulation and secondary academic branches. References required. State experience and salary desired. 4928 SURVEY.

WANTED: A resident directress for a Jewish Home for Working Girls. Capacity eighteen. References required. Mrs. Samuel Weinhaus, Hotel Schenley, Pittsburgh, Pa.

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TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools, colleges and universities. Education Service, Steger Building, Chicago; Southern Building, Washington; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.

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DEAN OF GIRLS' Public or Private School. College graduate (1911), Protestant, twelve years teaching experience, now taking special course preparatory to filling position as Dean of Girls, available Fall school term. 4889 SURVEY.

SITUATIONS WANTED

WOMAN of refinement would like position as matron-mother to superintend home for business girls. Best of references. 4892 SURVEY.

AVAILABLE, mid-October, social worker experienced in settlement, playground, girls' organization work and director summer camp. Expert in group recreation. Address 4893 SURVEY.

YOUNG Man, Jewish, Masters degree in Education, experienced as school principal and teacher, desires position as executive or executive assistant. 4897 SURVEY.

YOUNG WOMAN, American, Protestant, single, age twenty-eight, of excellent health, college graduate with business and teaching experience, willing to travel. Cultured, tactful and trustworthy. First class references. 4901 SURVEY.

FINANCIAL AND PUBLICITY DIRECTOR:—available for year-round or temporary travelling or resident connection, on full or part time. University and School Social Work graduate. Ten years experience in money raising, publicity and community organization in New York, Mass., Penn., Illinois and California. 4904 SURVEY.

A YOUNG MAN with a fair education and broad understanding for human problems, wishes a position in taking care of young people. Address: David Berkingof, care SURVEY.

WANTED: Position in New York in settlement or neighborhood visiting. Three years social work experience, speaks German and Hungarian. Reply International Institute, 2015 Witherill Street, Detroit, Michigan.

A LADY of refinement and culture with 5 years experience in institutional work would like a position of trust in college, hotel or boarding school. Services to begin Sept. 1. 4908 SURVEY.

CHRISTIAN YOUNG WOMAN with settlement and camp experience, desires position as Director of Girls' Work or Assistant Headworker in New York or New Jersey settlement. Wellesley (B. A.) and Columbia (M. A.) 4909 SURVEY.

PUBLICITY WORKER: Young woman, Journalism graduate. Family case work and publicity experience. New York preferred. 4910 SURVEY.

CHRISTIAN young woman desires position in settlement. Experienced in story-telling and childrens' work. Also some experience in family case work. 4911 SURVEY.

(In answering these advertisements please mention THE SURVEY. *It helps us, it identifies you.)*

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SITUATIONS WANTED

YOUNG WOMAN with rural school experience and special training and practice in horticulture and farm work would like position in a rural school, institution for children, or other place where experience could be utilized. 4912 SURVEY.

AMERICAN JEWESS, highly qualified, at present employed as head of child caring institution, available after September 1st. Can submit highest credentials of satisfactory accomplishments. 4913 SURVEY.

FIELD or executive secretary, woman, successful experience organization and finance work, wishes position raising funds or organizing, with political, social, or child welfare association. Willing to travel anywhere, Boston, New England or New York preferred. 4918 SURVEY.

OCCUPATIONAL THERAPIST desires position. Broad thorough training; wide experience and proven ability. 4921 SURVEY.

PERSONNEL or employment manager, woman, wishes position social, business or industrial organization. Previous experience provides proof of ability. Location New England preferred. Ready now. 4919 SURVEY.

INSTITUTION BUILDING SUPERINTENDENT, licensed engineer and all 'round mechanic, capable of taking complete charge of and making all repairs, for many years in largest Jewish institution buildings, seeks similar position, New York or vicinity. 4920 SURVEY.

COLLEGE WOMAN wishes position giving scope for initiative. Thirteen years in social work; varied experience, highest references. Italian spoken. 4922 SURVEY.

YOUNG WOMAN wishes secretarial position, six years experience in office management. References. 4923 SURVEY.

WANTED: Social Worker desires position immediately with children; vocational or educational preferred. Has been a teacher and writer. Unusual success with children. Manhattan or immediate vicinity. 4924 SURVEY.

YOUNG WOMAN, master's degree educational psychology, two year's Columbia, mental and educational tester private schools and clinics, desires position requiring psychological training. New York or suburbs. 4926 SURVEY.

TRAINED PSYCHIATRIC social worker, master's degree, broad experience, desires position as executive in mental clinic or institution or as consultant to social agency. Middle West preferred. 4927 SURVEY.

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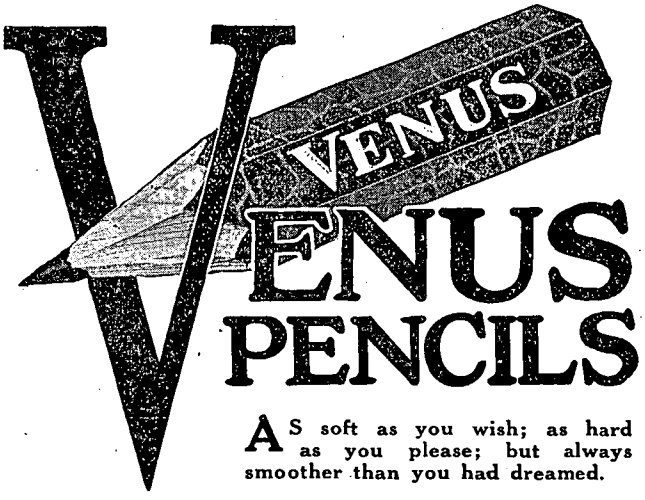

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STUDENTS WHO PAY BACK

(Continued from page 601)

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The Harmon Foundation does not pretend to have organized a charity. Furthermore, after making a study of the field, it has taken a stand against administering student loans on a charity or paternalistic basis. Six per cent is a fair rate of interest which will be required if any large sums of money are to be directed to this form of investment. The fund is protected against loss by the group premium feature—a provision under which the borrower repays 10 per cent more than he borrowed, as his share of a guarantee fund to cover possible defaults. This is more desirable than a high service charge and works no hardship on the student; premium money not needed to make up defaults is returned with interest, and, as one borrower remarked, "Students are mighty glad to get money this way when their earning power is low and there is nothing more tangible than character to offer for security. I need my doctor's degree and $250 will be of more service to me now than $2500 later."

That college administrators themselves are searching for a more practical method of making loans to their students and are considering the advantages of a strict business system is suggested by the fact that 170 colleges and universities have already applied to us for affiliation in the loan work we have undertaken. More than thirty institutions and organizations have informed us that they have taken our plan over entirely, or have adapted portions of it to their use. Carleton College turned over $5,000 of its own loan fund a year ago to be administered by us for that institution together with the $2,500 appropriated by the foundation and has extended the arrangement for another year.

No less important a financial personage than J. P. Morgan stated a number of years ago that he regarded character as the basis of credit. Character is the keynote of the work of the Division of Student Loans. Our present borrowers are "making good." Those who neglected to make their first payment on time have unconsciously provided the material on which to test the strength and desirability of the system. We have made a beginning which is sure to gather strength and importance.

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